

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1901.

The Week.

There is no doubt that a new canal treaty was signed on Monday at Washington. Coincidentally with the text, it is expected that the final report of our Canal Commissioners will be published. Their preliminary report distinctly favored the Panama route, on technical grounds, but declared that no satisfactory arrangement could be made for the acquisition of the Panama franchises and property. It is known, however, that prolonged and serious negotiations have since been carried on between our Commissioners and the French company. What our engineers very properly demanded was a definite offer from the Panama people—purchase price named in dollars and cents. This, we understand, has not been forthcoming. Our information is that President Hutin has been playing too subtle and time-wasting a game. He has hoped to secure an official endorsement by the United States of the Panama route as the better one, without actually completing its sale. Then he would be, he thought, in a position to do one of two things: he could either name a high price for the route to which he had got our Government to commit itself, or could go home to finance his company on the strength of the endorsement he had obtained in Washington. But it appears that he has utterly failed in this plan, too sly by half, and has worn out the patience of our Commissioners, who mean simply to put him and his route wholly out of the reckoning. We think this a thousand pities, since the weight of expert opinion so clearly leans to the Panama route as the preferable one.

President Roosevelt's declaration of purpose regarding appointments, last week, was most encouraging. Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Chairman of the National Civil-Service Reform League's Committee on Dependencies, called upon him, and was assured by Mr. Roosevelt that he should exclude political interest of every sort, direct or indirect, in three branches of the public service—the army, the navy, and "the colonies." As to domestic offices which have a political character, his rule would be, first of all, to make certain of fitness, and then, other things being equal, to allow political considerations a legitimate weight; but in the army, the navy, and the colonial service he declared that "there should not be one iota of a concession to politics while he remained President, for the intrusion of such an element would be nothing short of a taint." The

President further expressed to his caller the hope that this statement of his purposes might be spread everywhere, and there could hardly be news that civil-service reformers would better enjoy spreading.

To another statement made by the President last week civil-service reformers will also enjoy giving a wide circulation. Mr. Roosevelt recently forced the resignation of the Collector of Internal Revenue in the Louisville (Ky.) district, because he had shamefully abused his official position by using his power and patronage in favor of one side in a factional controversy. When the man whom he had picked out for the vacancy called at the White House, Mr. Roosevelt improved the opportunity to caution him against falling into his predecessor's error, and advised him to observe rigidly the Civil-Service Law. There is nothing like an object-lesson, and this Louisville incident will open the eyes of a great many Federal officials to the fact that there has been a change at Washington, and that the day for condoning "offensive partisanship" is past.

President Roosevelt well illustrated the right principles of selection in the appointment of a negro to office on Thursday week. He named a colored man for Justice of the Peace in the District of Columbia, and his choice was a graduate of Harvard University, who has become principal of the colored high school of the District. The appointee was vouched for by Booker T. Washington as representing the highest attainments of his race, and the selection is one which must be approved by every candid white man as eminently fit to be made in a city with so large a colored population as Washington. It is safe to say that the principles which Mr. Roosevelt applied to the filling of this office will govern his course in considering the appointment of negroes to more important positions in the South; in other words, that he will name only men fit for office, and men whose appointment will be satisfactory to the communities in which they are to serve.

As in former years, Secretary Long has declined to endorse in his annual report the extravagant and indefensible recommendations of the Naval Board of Construction for an increase of the fleet. He asks for three battle-ships, two large cruisers, three gunboats, three picket-boats, one collier, four tugboats, and three sailing training-ships. This last recommendation ends for the present an interesting conflict between the officers

who believe in training the modern sailor upon a sailing-ship, and those who advocate modern steam vessels of war for this purpose. The battle-ship controversy Mr. Long puts aside for the present, contenting himself with announcing that the designs ordered by Congress will be duly forthcoming. As was expected, Mr. Long asks for 450 more officers and 3,000 additional men, despite the fact that the Department finds it impossible to recruit the ranks of the enlisted men to the limit now allowed by law. One of Secretary Long's recommendations should win him much praise, particularly from the scientific world. It is that the Naval Observatory be given the best qualified civilian head to be obtained in the country, and that the law requiring a naval head be repealed. Secretary Long truly says that the existing statute might as well require that "the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries should be selected from the line of the Marine Corps, or the director of the Geological Survey from the line of the Army. There is no vital relation between the Navy and the Observatory."

The Northern Pacific settlement, whose terms are now, for the first time, authoritatively given to the public, closes a contest of great interest. The struggle began last spring with the effort of President James J. Hill of the Great Northern, in conjunction with Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, virtually to gain control of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul as a link between the Great Northern and Northern Pacific and some roads running east from Chicago in which they are interested. Opposition to the plan on the part of some large holders of St. Paul, however, forced them to give up the effort to secure control of that road, and to make the same effort for the control of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy system, which would answer the purpose about as well. The nature of the enterprise was not discovered until it was very far advanced. It finally became clear to the owners of the Union Pacific—a road paralleled at most points, and likely to be paralleled at all, by the Burlington. With the Burlington in the hands of transcontinental rivals, the owners of Union Pacific could expect no mercy. When the situation became fully known, it was too late for the owners of the Union Pacific to make direct resistance. They therefore resorted to the plan of buying a control in the Northern Pacific itself, and so quietly and astutely did they work that their operations did not become known until the plan was very far advanced. The offer of Mr. Harriman, representing the Union Pacific interests, to give up his large hold-

ings of Northern Pacific for a share in the Burlington, had been rejected by Mr. Hill, and the effort of that interest to purchase as much stock as was held by their opponents led to the cataclysm of last May, from which the Union Pacific emerged with a controlling interest in the Northern Pacific. Since that time efforts have been constantly in progress to settle the affair.

The formation of the so-called Northern Securities Company, which has now received a New Jersey charter, follows the complete victory of the Union Pacific interests, as regards the Burlington, and guarantees them more protection than they asked last May, before the final stock-market struggle. The new company, with its large capital of \$400,000,000, will control the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Roads, and through these the Burlington. In the latter road, however, one-half the voting power is guaranteed to the owners of the Union Pacific, who are completely protected against any undue competition or antagonism through the Burlington, or in the Northwest. The new company thus represents an immense railway mileage, and it is quite possible that it may engulf other lines. It stands for the idea of "community of interest," but only in a Pickwickian sense, since its formation was really a case of "Hobson's choice." In its general nature it closely resembles the old Oregon and Transcontinental Company, organized just twenty years ago by Mr. Henry Villard, which controlled the Northern Pacific, the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company (now in possession of the Union Pacific), and other roads. While these two security-owning companies were formed for distinctly different reasons, it is interesting to note that they represent the solution of a difficult transportation question by substantially the same method. This outcome of a protracted struggle seems to mean another long step toward railway consolidation, and may lead to even more far-reaching changes than have yet been produced.

The announcement by the Governor of Minnesota that he intends to use all the powers of his office to prevent the consolidation of the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern Railways was certainly usable for the purpose of raiding the stock market, as any other bearish news might be employed. We do not imagine for a moment that the Governor had any such thought or intention. There were reasons enough for his action apart from that. The people of Minnesota are and always have been intensely hostile to the union of the two great lines running through their territory. They demand the competition in freight rates which they conceive to be implied in separate ownership and operation.

When, therefore, the Governor says that he intends to exhaust his powers to prevent consolidation, he is merely conforming to the public opinion which placed him in office. It does not follow, however, that he can undo what has been done in the formation of the Northern Securities Company. It must be presumed that the lawyers who have given their minds to this work for months have anticipated all the objections that can be raised to it by the Attorney-General of Minnesota, or even by the Legislature of the State. It would be presumptuous and futile, however, for a newspaper to predict the outcome of a conflict which may eventually take on larger proportions than those now measured by State lines.

The exportation of seven millions of gold on Tuesday by one steamer has caused some perturbation in Wall Street—not among bankers, but in the minds of stock speculators. The banker keeps his eye on imports and exports, and on the rate of exchange, of which international trade is the sure index in the long run. He knows, or ought to know, how much gold is coming out of our mines, and how much is brought in at the Pacific ports. So the banker, if he understands his own trade, need never be taken by surprise when gold is exported, and need never be alarmed by the amount taken from us at any one time. The speculator in stocks looks only at the probable effect of gold exports upon the imaginations of other speculators, and upon the rate of interest for call loans. The slight effect which the present gold movement has had on the financial markets betokens the better understanding of cause and effect and the greater steadiness of public opinion since the dispute about the monetary standard was settled. It is no longer necessary to ask ourselves whether the exportation of gold implies a premium on that metal and a possible fall to the silver standard. We shall learn in due time that the exportation of gold is as natural and necessary as the exportation of anything else of which we have a surplus and other countries a deficiency, and we shall look upon it as a sign of financial health and not of disease. The amount of gold in the country, after making ample deductions from the official tables of statistics, cannot be less than nine hundred million dollars, and is probably one hundred millions greater than that sum.

Renewed charges of fraud perpetrated in the recent election on the acceptance of the new Constitution come from Alabama, and the information sent out concerning the vote there seems to substantiate these claims. In view of the expected opposition to the instrument, it seems almost incredible that the majority in its favor could reach 30,000 by

any legitimate means. There are several features of the Constitution that were calculated to arouse objection. Not only is the suffrage clause of such a character as to make it possible to exclude from the ballot many poor whites, should it ever be desired to get rid of their votes, but the penalties imposed upon sheriffs who should permit prisoners to be taken from them by lynchers were not favorably regarded. There were also certain obnoxious provisions on local legislation. For all of these reasons, a fairly heavy white vote against the Constitution was to be expected—to say nothing of the negroes, who made up from 40 to 50 per cent. of the qualified voters of the State under the old Constitution. These facts render it easy to give credence to the statement that a decided majority of those who cast ballots at the election voted against the Constitution. The barefaced character of the frauds perpetrated appears from the charge that in Montgomery the majority in favor of ratification was twice the whole actual turn-out of voters, and that in other counties the disproportion was even greater. The new Constitution was avowedly framed largely to avoid the necessity of manipulating elections. Yet in order to secure its adoption, more manipulation has been necessary than at any election for years.

Mayor-elect Low has announced his first selection for office, and he has thereby set a standard for his Administration. The office is that of Corporation Counsel, and the choice is George L. Rives. Without derogation of other eminent citizens and able lawyers, it may truthfully be said that this is the best possible appointment to the place. Mr. Rives not only is in the front rank at our bar, and conspicuous for his public spirit, but he was the Chairman of the Commission which was appointed last year to revise our city charter, and he consequently has that fund of intimate knowledge regarding the instrument which the law officer of the municipality needs at this time. The city is to be congratulated upon "getting the best." It has become so much the custom of our "prominent citizens" to decline a call to the public service if a man can "do better" by sticking to his private business, that we are really surprised when one is ready to make a sacrifice for the good of the community. If Mr. Low has set a standard for the new Administration in offering this place to the man most conspicuously qualified for it, Mr. Rives has also set a standard for citizens in accepting the call to duty. The man best fitted for a high office will often be a man who must make a sacrifice to take it, but every such man whose aid Mr. Low seeks must understand that he owes the city the obligation of his service.

The Citizens' Union has kept its prom-

ise to deal openly with the public. It has published a statement showing the total amount of money received by it in the city campaign—\$185,402—and has given also an account of the ways, all legitimate, in which it was expended. We presume that the exact sums laid out under each of the seven different heads mentioned could be ascertained on application to the Finance Committee. They should be printed, to make the exhibit complete. Even as it stands, this frank opening of its books to public inspection is one of the most useful things which the Citizens' Union has done in the whole campaign. It blazes the path for future amendments of the various corrupt-practices acts in the States, and for the needed introduction of their principle in national elections as well. Any one can see how our existing laws fall short of securing full and due publicity in election expenditures. The candidates file a statement of their individual outlay, but this is often only as cents to dollars of what is actually spent. Party committees collect vast sums in secret, spend them in secret, and religiously burn their books afterwards. They render no account even of the money they receive from candidates. In Mr. Shepard's admirably itemized statement of his expenses, for example, we find a contribution of \$1,000 to John McQuade, Treasurer of Tammany Hall. Will that gentleman ever tell us what he did with the money? Not he. Nor will Platt reveal either the sources of his campaign collections or the ways in which they were laid out.

This whole question is closely related to the other subject now so much in agitation—namely, an enforced publicity in the accounts of corporations. Some States have passed laws making it a felony for a corporation as such to give money to a political party. The aim of such laws is good. Whatever contributions a corporation makes to a political boss or a party manager are presumably made with corrupt intent. A corporation has no politics. If it pretends to have, the politics is clearly only a form of business, and gifts to the party war-chest are merely an investment. Let the constituent members of a corporation have what political affiliations they choose, and give money to what committees they please; but it would be a perfectly proper law, we believe, which should forbid a corporation, under heavy penalties, to subscribe any sums whatever to any party fund. Our present point is, however, that entire publicity on either side—in the accounts of the corporation and in the accounts of the political committee—would of itself shut up the corporate purse. Let the principle be once established in law that the monetary transactions of both corporations and party managers are to be spread out to the light of day, and a good part of the evil

we complain of would be cut away at a stroke.

It is not an easy task to draw the line between freedom of speech and of the press and license. If a newspaper can say with impunity, what the *Chicago American* said of Judge Hanecy's decision in the gas case, it may say of his next decision that he was evidently bribed by the successful litigant. It would be no long step to say that all of his decisions were bought; and, of course, the litigants would be privileged to say what a newspaper might say. The end of this kind of freedom of speech and of the press would be the subversion of the judiciary altogether. As Judge Hanecy said in his decision: "If such attacks are permitted and allowed to go unpunished, the judicial department of our Government cannot long survive; and when it falls, the whole structure of our Government will go with it." Probably Gov. Altgeld himself would not dispute this, but would maintain that it is a question for a jury to decide whether the article published or the words spoken were really calculated to bring the administration of justice into contempt. He argued in this case as though there were a similarity between it and the Debs case, and as though the punishment of the newspaper men would be something like "government by injunction."

The report of Major Gorgas, Chief Sanitary Officer at Havana, says that there was not a single case of yellow fever in that city during the month of October, whereas that month in previous years has usually furnished the largest number of cases. In the year 1900 the number of cases was 308, and of deaths 74. The reason for this remarkable change is that the cause of yellow fever has been found. A certain variety of the mosquito, now well identified, is the purveyor of this malady to human beings, and all that the health officers need to do, in order to prevent yellow fever, is to prevent the existence of these insects, or at all events to prevent them from biting human beings. "In Havana this year," says Major Gorgas, "we have worked upon the hypothesis that the mosquito is the only way of transmitting the disease." Disinfection and quarantine as means of "stamping out" the disease have been wholly discontinued. This is a boon conferred upon the island of Cuba, and, indeed, upon the civilized world, by the medical staff of the United States army. These men were not the first to perceive the truth—that honor belongs to Dr. Charles Finlay—but they were the first to demonstrate it and bring it into general acceptance.

About six weeks ago, the time limit

set for the authorization of the religious orders by the French Associations Act expired, and the exodus of whole communities to Belgium, Italy, and the Channel Islands gave to the law something of the appearance of persecution. How far this is from being the case is shown in the fact that nearly every order has contrived to keep alive at least one establishment under the law. Thus the Carthusians of the Grande Chartreuse remain, while all their other communities have scattered. The fact, too, that more than half of the 16,468 religious establishments in France have applied for authorization, shows clearly enough that M. Waldeck-Rousseau was not attacking the religious establishments as such. That the anti-Republican orders—Jesuits, Passionists, and Assumptionists—should very generally have refused to undergo the scrutiny of the Government, choosing rather exile, was only natural. The new law, in fact, was aimed chiefly against them. In bringing more than half the independent communities of France under the direct supervision of the Government, and thus assuming over the irregular clergy the kind of control which the Government has long exercised over the bishops and parish priests, M. Waldeck-Rousseau has gained a moral victory. The general acquiescence of the charitable orders in the new law proves that, notwithstanding the vaticinations of clericals like the Comte de Mun, neither general confiscation nor an anti-religious campaign was involved in a law which attacked certain anti-national forms of religious organization.

Turkey is finding out the wisdom of that old maxim of spendthrifts and bankrupts—that to pay one debt only encourages the other creditors. The Sultan strained a point to pay the claims of the United States, only to bring the French fleet down upon him with a demand for instant settlement with France. That debt painfully squared, Russia was next with pressing reminders about her own little bills, and now comes the faithful old friend, John Bull, to say that his account cannot be any longer put off. The British Ambassador at Constantinople is pressing the English claims, and will observe to the Porte, if necessary, that England has a fleet as well as France. Thus does the Turk sadly discover that to be honest with one creditor has a most unhappy influence upon the others. His new-found friend, the Emperor William, stood him in good stead for a time. The Sultan walked arm in arm with the Kaiser, just as Capt. Costigan used to go down the street with a rich young fellow, tipping the wink to his creditor-tradesmen: "Moind the company I'm in; I'm sure to pay ye." But that would not last for ever, and the eagles are now gathering about the Turkish carcass.

CUBAN PROBLEMS.

Recent dispatches from Havana report that Masó is making great gains in his canvass for the Presidency. That there is even to be an election of a Cuban President will come as a piece of news to most Americans, busied as they are about farm and merchandise, and already thinking of Cuba more as a nuisance than as an isle of the oppressed to be made one of the blest. Yet if present plans hold, the Cubans will choose a President and other officers of their so-called independent government next February; and the thing to make note of just now is that Masó's candidacy, with its probable success, represents a serious derangement of what is understood to be the "official" programme kindly prepared for the Cubans by our military authorities.

Estrada Palma was plainly earmarked as the candidate favored by Gen. Wood and by our War Department. Masó was to be induced to accept the Vice-Presidency. The two were expected to be the docile team which the Military Governor could drive whithersoever he listed. But suddenly Masó kicked over the traces. On October 31 he issued an electoral manifesto, to explain why it was a "patriotic duty" for him to stand for the Presidency of the Cuban republic. He declared that he had been appealed to from all parts of the island to lend his name to a candidacy which would represent the "genuine Cuban tradition," and which would aim at "saving from the general shipwreck at least the political life of the country, the principles of the revolution, and the honor of Cubans."

In his appeal for popular support, Masó did not think it necessary to pay any compliments or show any gratitude to the American Government. He roundly declared that the American intervention in Cuba had been "perverted into a military occupation approaching a conquest"; and frankly admitted that Cuba could not be, under the terms of the Platt amendment, a really independent state. Yet, within the limitations imposed upon them, he thought that the Cuban people should proceed with firmness and prudence to set up a Government which should represent all elements and be able to maintain cordial relations with the United States. Masó appealed openly to the negro vote, asked for the support of his fellow-veterans of the Cuban army, and addressed himself also to citizens of Spanish antecedents, who are, he asserted, the "very nerves of our national life."

It is easy to see why the candidacy of such a man on such a platform should alarm the American foster-fathers of Cuba. In Masó's bold appeal to colored voters, they discern the threat of a war of races in the island; and it appears that the negro citizens in Santiago and elsewhere are, in fact, flocking to his standard almost in a body. His adroit an-

gling for the votes of soldiers and Spaniards must be a source of nearly as great uneasiness to Gen. Wood. If Masó succeeds, the whole carefully arranged plan for gently leading the Cubans along under Palma into whatever course their American rulers might finally decide to be good for them, will be in danger of being shattered. The National party, which our military Government coddled and nursed, has been rent into fragments, most of which have fallen into Masó's basket. All told, the political outlook in Cuba has radically changed within the past month, and in a way necessarily disquieting to Gen. Wood and Secretary Root.

But the main question in Cuba is, after all, economic rather than political. Even Masó recognizes this. With whatever insubordination he may propose to cut loose from Gen. Wood's leading-strings, he does not neglect to emphasize the importance of speedily securing a treaty with the United States which shall give life to Cuban industries. How commercially to rescue the islands we have rescued by force of arms, is now the great and pressing question in Cuban administration. All accounts agree that the industrial and commercial situation in Cuba is bad, and rapidly growing worse. There will be a large sugar crop, but no market for it. Neither capital nor labor is freely entering the island. A committee of representative merchants and planters is *en route* from Havana to Washington to lay all these urgent matters before President Roosevelt.

What should be done? Well, for one thing, we ought to treat Cuba decently. Having cut her off from her old market, we ought to provide her a new one. Nor should we forget that we have promised to do so. We ought to keep that promise. The case of Cuban reciprocity stands by itself. Senator Spooner says that he does not know what reciprocity means—at least, he wishes some one would define the word for him. But he ought to know exactly what Cuban reciprocity means. He was one of the Senators called into conference with the Cuban delegates last spring, when it was agreed that, if the Platt amendment were accepted by the Convention, a considerable reduction in our tariff on Cuban sugar and tobacco should be made as speedily as possible. Of course, that agreement is not legally binding upon us; but it is morally binding. The Cubans fulfilled their part of the bargain; we must live up to ours. Whatever else President Roosevelt urges Congress to do, he should not fail to advise it earnestly to do something for Cuba at the earliest possible day. Other reciprocity proposals may fail, but to establish reciprocal trade with Cuba we are in honor bound. Having done that, and having left the Cubans to govern themselves, we may withdraw our troops and our con-

trol with as comfortable a feeling as that which Sancho Panza had in leaving Barataria, and may even come away as convinced as he was that our talents do not lie in the direction of governing islands.

THE IRREPRESSIBLE TARIFF.

Many wise men, not to say wiseacres, are declaring at Washington that Congress must not touch the tariff. No one really thinks of disturbing it, is the first thing they assert. Then they add that it would be absurd to revise the tariff; that it could not be done without much difficulty; that they will do it themselves all in good time if you will only let them alone now; and they wind up with an agonized cry for help: "Men and brethren, come, in heaven's name, to prevent reckless agitators for tariff revision from clouding prosperity and ruining business!"

Well, who are these impious men who would lay a sacrilegious hand upon the sacred ark of protection? They are, most of them, lifelong protectionists. First among them we rank William McKinley, who, being dead, yet speaketh in favor of tariff revision. His last public utterance was an earnest call to his party and to his countrymen to "extend and promote our markets abroad" by doing away with "some of our tariffs that are no longer needed for revenue or to encourage and protect our industries at home." There can be no doubt that, if President McKinley had lived, he would be to-day the leader in the movement which excited protectionists are foolishly denouncing as treason to his memory. Another of the pestiferous agitators is Congressman Babcock, honored Republican, convinced protectionist. He announced last week that he should push from the first day of Congress his bill for putting upon the free list all the manufactures of the Steel Trust. His ground is precisely that taken by McKinley. The duties on iron and steel are no longer needed. There are practically no imports. Exports go to foreign countries, and are there sold at lower prices than those demanded of the American consumer. President Schwab admitted this in his testimony before the Industrial Commission. Very well, says Mr. Babcock; duties that not only are not needed, but furnish a barrier behind which a giant Trust can take refuge and make exactions from the American people—such duties must be repealed. It is not a question of fiscal policy, but of simple social justice.

In addition to these cantankerous Republican revisers of the tariff, we have the Chambers of Commerce, all over the country, meeting to resolve that tariff obstructions to foreign trade ought to be removed at once, and sending large delegations to Washington to urge their views upon the President. In other

words, the very business men who are to be ruined by so much as a discussion of the tariff, are foremost in agitating its revision! It is a wise business man that knows his own interest better than a frightened Congressman. Right under Senator Hanna's nose, the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce rises up, to advocate a large measure of reciprocity with Canada. That city has become a great manufacturing centre, and is looking about for markets. What market so natural or alluring as the one just across Lake Erie? But mutually repellent tariff laws prevent the exchange of raw materials and finished products across that international border; and Cleveland business men are clear-headed enough to see that a lowering of the barriers would promote a flow of commerce advantageous to both countries. So they are for reciprocity—that is to say, for tariff revision.

The contending forces in this latest struggle over the tariff are aligned in a novel way. It is no longer political party against political party. The tariff sword has gone into the Republican vitals, and that party sees itself divided on the issue. It may be that the Democrats are as sharply divided, but they can count as little more, just now, than spectators of the contest. It is interest against interest, manufactures against raw materials, which the present controversy has arrayed. Historically, of course, the manufacturers have been the great upholders and beneficiaries of the tariff. From time to time they threw a sop, as a rule wholly unsubstantial, to agricultural interests, to keep them quiet. But now the day has arrived when the manufacturers, as a whole, want a modification of the tariff, which they no longer need (they never did need it, really), and lo! it is the despised producer of raw materials who now rises up to say them nay. If the great manufacturers of the country could now have their way, we should have a revised tariff, and that right early; but the sugar-growers and the wool-raisers, the tobacco-farmers and the fruit-growers, sullenly say, "No, you don't! Our inning has come, and we mean to make the most out of it that we can."

It is the spectacle of this quarrel between old friends, the fear that battling interests will prove irreconcilable and only do each other harm, that leads timid counsellors to recommend soothing-syrup and silence. "Let the old man sleep," says Senator Mason elegantly, "for there is always trouble when you arouse him." Yes, but suppose the old man is already suffering from colic, and has a nightmare, and will soon get up and begin to smash the furniture unless something is done to relieve him? It is a counsel of folly as well as of cowardice, this renewal of Lord Melbourne's impatient cry, "Why can't you let it alone?" The trouble is that it won't let

you alone. Time and the course of our industrial development and the march of commerce and the competition of nations have set the movement for tariff revision running like a strong tide; and all the mops of all the Mrs. Partingtons in Washington cannot keep it out of the Republican house. The alarmed or the greedy may cry, Down with tariff revision! but it will not down. It is as irrepressible, as pitiless of our repose, as any other unsettled question.

BLACK AND WHITE RATIOS FOR ELEVEN DECADES.

An analysis of the relative numbers of the white and of the negro population of the several sections of the United States at different periods in our national history reveals some facts of interest and importance. For the purposes of such an analysis the country may be conveniently divided into seven groups of States and Territories. Three of these comprise that portion of the country in which, in 1860, slavery was either legally or practically non-existent. The North Atlantic group covers the section north of Mason's and Dixon's line and east of the State of Ohio. That is, it is made up of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. The Northern Central group includes all the old free States from Ohio to Kansas, inclusive, and from the Ohio River and the northern boundary of Missouri to the Canadian border. The States and Territories of the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast make up the Western group. This grouping is the same as that used in the official census publications, except that Missouri, which the Census Office considers as one of the Northern Central group, is not so dealt with in this discussion. It is excluded because, in 1860, it was a slave State.

Of the sixteen slave States Delaware, Maryland, the Virginias, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, together with the District of Columbia, lie to the north of the States in which the negro population is relatively the most numerous. Before the war, the phrase "Border States" was sometimes used so as to include all this region, although in its more precise and accurate definition that term excluded North Carolina and Tennessee. No one of the States which we here class as "Border States" had, before the attack upon Sumter, passed ordinances of secession. The Border States may be divided into two groups—the eastern, made up of Delaware, Maryland, the District of Columbia, the Virginias, and North Carolina; the western, of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri. In Texas and Arkansas, two of the remaining eight slave States, the whites have always been in an overwhelming majority. These two States, together with Oklahoma, make up the group which is here styled the

Southwestern. The other six States, viz., South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, contain about one-half of the negro population of the entire country, and their inhabitants are divided between the two races with approximately numerical equality. This group is referred to as the Southern.

The following table shows the number of negroes in every one thousand inhabitants of the country as a whole, and of each of the groups as above defined at each census from the first to the twelfth:

	United States.	Southern.	Southwestern.	Eastern Border.	Western Border.	North Atlantic.	Northern Central.	Western.
1900.....	116	501	211	264	127	18	14	7
1890.....	119	506	234	283	135	16	14	9
1880.....	131	510	252	310	153	16	16	7
1870.....	127	505	288	308	154	15	14	6
1860.....	141	496	283	323	185	15	8	7
1850.....	157	488	252	345	209	17	10	7
1840.....	168	486	209	368	220	21	10	.
1830.....	181	486	155	386	226	23	11	.
1820.....	184	477	118	386	212	25	10	.
1810.....	190	468	..	385	191	20	13	.
1800.....	189	414	..	366	168	32	12	.
1790.....	193	418	..	352	149	34	..	.

In the country as a whole, the whites have increased more rapidly than the negroes in nine of the eleven decades between 1790 and 1900. The defective census of 1870 probably explains the apparent exception of the decade between 1870 and 1880. The fact that the slave trade was not prohibited until 1808 may account for the greater increase of negroes than whites in the decade between 1800 and 1810. That was the period of the Napoleonic wars, when European immigration to this country was very small. In the last twenty years, at all events, the more rapid increase of the whites has been due entirely to the coming in of immigrants from Europe. The rate of natural increase of the two races has been substantially the same in the country as a whole.

In the region lying between the eastern foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains and the western ocean there never have been many negroes. The slight changes in the proportion they bear to the total population, which the table shows to have taken place from time to time, are without significance. In the great Northern Central section the negroes constitute a very small part of the inhabitants. In the half century immediately preceding the civil war, the white population increased by leaps and bounds, while the incoming of negroes was, in several of the more accessible States, checked by the so-called Black Codes then in force. When, as a result of the war, the negroes became free to go where they pleased, the relative numbers of the negro population of the Northern Central States very nearly doubled in the single decade between 1860 and 1870. Since 1880 there has been no apprecia-

ble change in the proportion of negroes to whites in this section, although in the last ten years there seems to have been a very large negro emigration from other States into Illinois and Indiana. In the North Atlantic group, the negroes constituted numerically a more important part of the population in 1790 than they have ever done since. For nearly three-quarters of a century the proportion they bore to the entire population steadily declined, and in 1860 it was not half as great as it had been seventy years before. In this part of the country no such sudden increase of negro population followed emancipation as took place in the Northern Central section. From 1860 to 1890 there was no substantial change in the proportion of negroes to whites. In the last ten years the number of the former in New York and Pennsylvania, and in some of the other States of the North Atlantic section, has greatly increased, and the negroes are now relatively more numerous in this section than they have been at any preceding period for more than half a century. They do not even now, however, constitute so large a proportion of the inhabitants as they did in 1840 before the great rush of European immigration set in. The figures for the three Northern groups show that so long as slavery lasted, the proportion of negroes to the total population of the free States grew less and less, and that since emancipation the tendency has been in the opposite direction.

When we pass to the Border-State groups, we find that in each of them the relative numerical importance of the negro population increased for the first four decades; that is, from 1790 to 1830. During this period the increase of the white population of the Eastern Border States was but small. There was then a large white emigration from those States to the South, to the West, and to the Northwest. It was at that time that southern Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois were settled, principally by natives of Virginia and Kentucky. The business of shipping Virginia and Kentucky slaves southward had not then attained the magnitude it afterwards reached. Since 1830 there has been a steady decline in the proportion of negroes to the total population of the Border States. The slight increase shown in the table in that proportion in the eastern Border States between 1870 and 1880 was doubtless due entirely to the defective enumeration in 1870. From 1830 to 1860 the negro population of the border was depleted by the sale of slaves South. Between 1845 and 1860 an appreciable portion of the foreign immigrants to this country, then so numerous, found their way to the more northern of these States. It was at this time that there grew up a so-called "Limerick" in Baltimore and a great German city in St. Louis.

Since the war the foreign-born population of these States has received constant accessions, while the Border-State negroes have moved in considerable numbers to the Northern States and in a less degree to the States further South.

In 1860 slavery still existed in six of the original thirteen States. Four of the six are in the group of Eastern Border States. In 1790 these four States contained more than two-thirds of the entire negro population of the country. The steady decline for nearly three-quarters of a century in the relative numbers of the negro population of these States proves how unnecessary in their climate negro slavery ever was. How different the history of the country would have been had no negro slaves ever been brought into them! How unfortunate it was that the Ordinance of 1787 could not have been extended to the territory southwest of the Ohio and subsequently to Missouri. There can be no question that to-day the Border States would have been more wealthy and prosperous, and doubtless would have contained a larger population, if slavery had never been established in them. If they never had been slave States, their negro population at this time would probably be relatively little more numerous than is that of the North Atlantic States. As it is, the negro problem in all the Border States is steadily becoming, in fact, less important, no matter how much agitation the politicians of those States may for their own purposes now or hereafter stir up. Substantially the same thing may be said as to the Southwestern group. Although the negro population of Arkansas has for many years increased faster than the white, it still numbers less than three-tenths of the whole.

Since 1870 the proportion of negroes in the Southwestern group as a whole has steadily declined. The negroes now number little more than one-fifth of its entire population. It is only in the Southern group of States that the negroes are so numerous that they can be regarded by even the most prejudiced of sensible men as in any aspect a source of possible danger. For eighty years, from 1800 to 1880, they steadily gained in numbers upon the whites. In the last-named year, out of every one thousand inhabitants of these States, five hundred and nineteen had African blood in their veins. So long as slavery continued, or the economic and industrial conditions resulting from slavery remained substantially unchanged, the whites became relatively less and the negroes relatively more numerous in both the Southern and Southwestern groups of States. This was not due to any greater rate of natural increase among the negroes of these States than among their white inhabitants, for probably the reverse was the case. In the country as a whole, the negro rate

of natural increase is as great as that of the whites, but it is as great because, while it is less than that of the Southern, it is greater than that of the Northern whites. While slavery lasted, the failure of the superior race in the South and Southwestern groups to maintain its relative proportion of the population was due to the constant emigration from those States of the more active and enterprising of the non-slave-holding whites. Had slavery not been abolished, it is probable that the negroes would have continued to gain. The tide turned when manufacturing and mining industries began to spring up in the South on a large scale. Home employment for the surplus white population was thus created. The negroes now constitute a smaller proportion of the population of the Southern group than they did twenty years ago. This is true not only of the group as a whole, but of five of the six States which compose it. It is significant that Mississippi, the single exception, is the very one of those States in which there has been least of that industrial development which we have in mind when we speak of the "New South."

A CENTURY OF THE EVENING POST.

As merely to have lived through the Reign of Terror was achievement enough for Sieyès, so a newspaper, when asked what it has done in the course of a hundred years of continuous existence, might simply reply with the French abbé, "I have lived." But a century of life for an institution means something different from what it does for a man. Dean Swift once broke out violently, as Sir Walter Scott relates, when some one spoke in his presence of a certain "fine old man." "If the man you speak of," cried he, "had either a mind or a body worth a farthing, they would have worn him out long ago." But a centenarian newspaper is not open to that reproach. The processes of decay which go on in the human organism as age increases are, in an institution, continually made good by the processes of repair. Just as the individual withers but the world is more and more, so the successive editors of a daily journal pass away only to leave it flourishing in perpetual youth.

Yet it is perhaps more strikingly in a newspaper than in any other form of collective activity persisting from generation to generation, that the power and impress of strong personality abide. Editors live in their successors, as ancestors do in their descendants, whether the latter will or no. The unconscious formation of a newspaper's style is seized upon by Walter Bagehot, in his 'Physics and Politics,' as an excellent illustration of the way in which a type is created. "A certain trade-mark," he writes, "a curious and indefinable unity,

settles on every newspaper." How the thing is done he explains by a story of the founder of the *London Times*, who replied to the query why all the articles read as if written by one man, "Oh, there is always some one best contributor, and all the rest copy."

It is an honorable line of "best contributors" to which the *Evening Post* can point in the persons of its editors from 1801 down. There may have been more vivid personalities connected with the American press; other names may suggest more of sound and fury; but what other newspaper numbers, among those who have shaped its policy and wielded its leading pen, men whose names stand for so much of culture and power and fire and integrity as do those of William Coleman, William Leggett, William Cullen Bryant, Parke Godwin, John Bigelow, Carl Schurz, and Edwin L. Godkin? Of marked diversity of gifts, these editors of the *Evening Post* were one in devotion to the highest standards in journalism and in public life. All of them helped to give to their newspaper a certain tone which was recognized by Charles Sumner when he wrote to John Bigelow in 1850, "I cannot forbear expressing the sincere delight with which I read your paper. Its politics have such a temper from literature that they fascinate as well as convince."

Bryant, of course, was the editor who most closely fixed, in the public mind, the association of the *Evening Post* with literature. It was as "The Man of Letters," not the editor, that he was commemorated in its columns, after his death, by Edmund Clarence Stedman. But there were other brave writers, both before and after that Agamemnon. Of the anti-slavery writing in the *Evening Post* in 1835-37, done by William Leggett, an historian of the time says that it was a "really noble series of editorials"; and Bryant himself paid tribute to the memory of his brother-editor, by writing of him after his untimely death:

"The words of fire that from his pen
Were flung upon the fervid page,
Still move, still shake the hearts of men,
Amid a cold and coward age."

As for the pen of Mr. Godkin, which so lately ceased to adorn the pages of the *Evening Post*, what newspaper ever matched it for satire that read like a page of Swift's, for Olympian humor, for fearlessness and fervor, for clarity of moral perception, and for a broad acquaintance with the best that has been thought and done in the world's history, brought to bear upon the endless and apparently petty problems of the day which confront a writer for the day?

A man has mingled feelings, remarked Phillips Brooks, when he walks through a gallery of his ancestors. Their fame is his, yet not his, unless he reproduces and continues it. To its editorial ancestors the *Evening Post* paid on Saturday its just acknowledgments, joining

reverence to those who are dead with greetings to those who are still among the living, and ending with the devout hope, *Sicut patribus, sit Deus nobis.*

ousting AN ITALIAN TAMMANY.

If ever the appeal to the ballot looked hopeless, it was in the case of Naples, and news that the political Camorra was defeated last week by a narrow majority will surprise not only general students of municipal problems, but the Italians themselves. Conditions had seemed too bad to be immediately remedied. More than a year ago the Italian Government was forced, by the accumulating proofs of corruption in Naples, to suspend the municipal government and to place the city in the charge of a Royal Commission of Inquiry. The bulky report of this Commission, which was recently published, gives what should for the future remain a veritable encyclopædia of municipal pathology.

The situation was not one to encourage reformers. Unscrupulous political leaders had been allowed to grow into great power, because they were necessary, or made themselves appear so, to the success of the national parties. The infamous Casale and Summonte may have seemed as necessary to Giolitti's leadership as Croker seemed indispensable to Mr. Bryan's canvass. The Commission of Inquiry followed the matter further, and found that the voting-lists were scandalously stuffed, and that, short of a popular uprising, the candidates of the Camorra could always be counted in. The business of the city was found to be in frightful disorder. In many departments no pretence of adequate bookkeeping had been made, and the heads were only able to say that the money had been spent in some unexplained fashion for the good of the city. Wherever the Commission followed the city's transactions with holders of franchises, or its conduct of public utilities, it found evidences of wastefulness and of corruption. Light, water, and traction companies paid tribute to the machine; the Department of Sanitation showed the same taint. There was no doubt about the disease; the question was as to the cure.

To many it was discouraging that the Commission made no positive recommendations. Conservative editors deplored the fact that the prosecutions which must follow the exposure could be undertaken only after considerable delays. Many feared that the decision to hold a city election in November, and to restore the control to a demoralized people, was at least premature, and might turn out to be disastrous. There were, in fact, many reasons for fearing that the political health of the city had been so completely sapped that the power of reaction was lost. If the political abuses of Naples are of the kind which

we know in most of our American cities, the relation of the machine to the average citizen is of a sort not only to despoil, but to humiliate. Imagine a condition of things where one may not discharge a Camorrist servant without incurring threats and personal peril; where the agents of the "High" Camorra may demand to inspect your books, so that you may be mulcted intelligently on the basis of your profits. A terrorism which in the worst days of Tammany was chiefly directed against the vicious, the miserable, and the poor, has been in Naples systematically employed against the well-to-do; so that to arouse civic courage to revolt against extortion was vastly more difficult in Naples than it was in New York.

Believing that the whole community was honeycombed by the system or blackmailing, many of the North Italian journals feared that a great mistake had been made in appealing to the voters. It would have been safer, they felt, to keep the city under the Commission until the voting-lists had been thoroughly revised, the bosses tried and punished, and a better public spirit aroused. From this prudent, if rather timid, opinion the Committee dissented utterly, and, whether moved by questions of ministerial expediency or by a sole regard for the matter in hand, held to the decision that the city must settle its own political future—and promptly.

The result will show to doubters that it is unwise to think too meanly of the people. The victory over the Camorra, it should be noted, was won in the normal way, by a non-partisan coalition which had frankly no other aim than to "destroy an historic organization." To this end, parties as different as Socialists and Monarchists, as Catholics who had long abstained from political activity and the members of the influential Merchants' Association, who had long suffered from the blackmail system, all united. Against this improvised movement the most desperate efforts of the bosses failed. That it was an heroic cleaning up, those who have fought longest against our Tammany will be freest to admit. Such a victory gives hope to all who are working for decent civic housekeeping. Even Philadelphia need not despair of shaking off her present unenviable distinction of being the worst governed of civilized cities.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY AT PHILADELPHIA.

PHILADELPHIA, November 15, 1901.

The National Academy of Sciences has just closed here one of the most successful of its autumn meetings, and one of the most agreeable and interesting as to its reception. It met on Tuesday forenoon, November 12, in Houston Hall, which is the general students' club of the University of Pennsylvania. The first paper was a biographical notice of the late Dr. Gent,

who was eminent as a chemist. On Wednesday Gen. Comstock read a notice of the life of Gen. John Newton. The list of papers promised that chemistry would occupy the attention of the Academy more than any other science. But the chemists seem to think—mistakenly, I fancy—that scientific men outside their own fraternity cannot be expected to care for questions of the chemical constitution of this or that class of bodies; and the consequence was that some papers in this department went unread, as did two by Dr. Barus, one of which, on Nuclear Condensation, we were particularly sorry to miss. One of the most important contributions was made on Thursday, by Prof. James M. Crafts, on the "pseudo-catalytic action of concentrated acids." It related to that branch of chemistry, to-day almost the dominating one, which considers the rapidity—or, as the chemists phrase it, the "velocity"—of chemical action. This, we know, in a general way, depends upon the concentration of the different reagents. But how should "concentration" be defined? Hitherto, only extremely dilute solutions have been employed in such researches; and as long as study was confined to them, it was sufficient to define concentration as the number of molecules, or of ions, per unit of volume. It has been well known that this definition would not lend itself to any simple expression of the action of concentrated solutions; but in what manner it ought to be modified has not hitherto been satisfactorily made out. Professor Crafts has found a definition which answers to perfection for certain concentrated solutions, at least. He has selected for study the action of "strong" acids—namely, those which are unable to resist the ionizing action of water—in decomposing many substances, without themselves entering into any chemical combination. This fomenting of discord is what is called, in a general way, catalysis, or pseudo-catalysis when it is suspected that the fomenters are not really quite so disinterested as they pretend to be. Professor Crafts has had the happy idea of adopting for subjects of decomposition a class of bodies called sulphonic acids, which, for certain reasons, are particularly available for the purpose. In these cases, the proper definition of concentration was found to be that it is the ratio of the number of active ions present to the total number of molecules. Experiments were also made with muriatic acid as the catalyzing agent, with the result that its effect is an exponential function of the amount. This is a fact perhaps as important as the definition of concentration. Although the mass of observations already obtained by Professor Crafts is large, it is likely to be greatly increased.

Another very interesting chemical paper was presented on Tuesday morning by Prof. Edgar F. Smith. Everybody who has read a treatise on chemistry within the last twenty years is aware that the interest in the precise value of the atomic weights of the elements has been immensely heightened by the discovery of the periodic law. All the elements, from atomic weight 39 up, are arranged, according to their chemical properties, in eighteen vertical columns and five horizontal rows; and the atomic weights increase downwards and to the left, the left-hand element in each row (having the lowest atomic weight in that

row) being of higher atomic weight than the right-hand (or highest) atomic weight of the row above it. There are two exceptions only. The atomic weight of Nickel, 58.7, ought to be higher than that of Cobalt, which is 59.0; and the atomic weight of Iodine, which is 126.8, ought to be higher than that of Tellurium, which is 127.5. But while the atomic weights, with those exceptions, always increase, and although upon this table have been based successful predictions of the existence and chief properties of four elements, at least—Gallium, Germanium, Scandium, and Neon, while Crypton and Xenon were virtually predicted—yet there seems to be no exactitude or strict regularity in the amount of difference between two successive atomic weights. This may very well be because many, if not most, of the elements are so impure, as to falsify their atomic weights, and in that way completely to mask the law of progression, which is probably itself periodic.

This hypothesis is somewhat confirmed by the fact that there is a gap in the table, which is supposed to represent sixteen successive elements hitherto undiscovered or unlocated; and nearly all the elements which appear in the table just above these undiscovered elements have their atomic weights heavier than we should expect from the periodic law; while all those just below any of the undiscovered elements have their atomic weights lighter than we should expect. This would be just the effect that would be produced if these elements were contaminated with the undiscovered elements. Among the elements whose observed atomic weights are lighter than we should expect them to be, none is quite so remarkably so as Tungsten, which is set down as 184, although we should expect it to be between 186 and 187. Professor Smith has undertaken a new determination of this atomic weight, and has ascertained that there is no known process which will free Tungsten from Vanadium, the atomic weight of which, being only 51.4, must have lowered the apparent atomic weight of Tungsten by a considerable amount. The patience of an inorganic chemist needs to be inexhaustible, and thus far Professor Smith has not himself succeeded in effecting the necessary purification of Tungsten. Meantime, since he has proved that all the hitherto supposed pure Tungsten contained Vanadium—say, perhaps, about 1 per cent. of it—it is probable that the true atomic weight is about what the periodic law would lead us to expect it to be.

Another paper approaching a chemical subject, if Mr. Brush's announced etherion of several years ago can be called chemical, was read by Prof. Edward W. Morley, on the transmission of heat through the vapor of water at low pressures; the name of Mr. Charles F. Brush being associated with his own as collaborator. Mr. Morley proved conclusively that, at certain very low pressures, the transmission of heat through aqueous vapor is very considerably more rapid than through air, though it is always much less than through hydrogen. This paper was read on Wednesday.

There were very few physicists at the meeting, and one may say no astronomers, who were doubtless kept at home to welcome the Leonids. But a geologist, Dr. George Ferdinand Becker, brought out, on

Thursday, a physical phenomenon which one can hardly believe to be absolutely new, although it would probably be difficult to find any record of it. Namely, it is not uncommon to find laminae of slate separated by crystals; but it has hitherto been supposed that the laminae were first separated by faulting or otherwise, and that subsequently the crystals were deposited. An instance in which a crinkle affecting several successive laminae lay in a line perpendicular to all of them led Dr. Becker to cause the following experiment to be made. Horizontal plates of glass, kept from one another at a fifth of a millimetre, were immersed in a strong solution of alum, which was permitted to crystallize. The result was that the crystals forming between the plates forced the latter apart nearly to the distance of a millimetre. Now, since there seems to have been nothing but friction to oppose lateral expansion, it seems that the growing crystal is capable of stresses like those of the solid.

Another note by Dr. Becker was geological in its aim; but its reasoning was purely dynamical. This was a refutation of the orogenetic theory of tilted blocks. According to this theory, the crust of the earth, floating upon a magma, becomes broken up into blocks which are then tilted, so as to lean in oblique positions one against another, thus forming mountain ridges with intervening valleys. But Dr. Becker showed that masses so great as would be required thus to account for mountain formations would, even if each was a block of flawless granite, be broken by its own weight into pieces, some of which would be so thin as to turn quite over upon their sides, so that a sort of discontinuity would result, very different from anything seen in geology.

There were two interesting and brilliant exhibitions by Prof. George F. Barker: one, of the five new gases and their light—helium, neon, argon, crypton, and xenon—neon showing a most extraordinary scarlet light, and argon, with a condenser, a magnificent deep blue; the other, of two of the new incandescent electric lights, (1) that one in which the filament is composed of that same mixture of 99 per cent. thorium and 1 per cent. ceria which shines in the mantle of the Welsbach burner; and (2) that one in which the filament is composed of metallic osmium. Presumably, the hindrance to the extensive use of the latter would be the impossibility of obtaining osmium in large quantities. The method of making the filament of this excessively refractory and hard metal is a secret in possession of the Welsbach Company. Otherwise, since it requires but half the voltage of the carbon incandescent light, there would be very great economy in it. The ordinary voltage would presumably destroy the filament.

On the biological side there were half-a-dozen papers of a high average order of merit; especially two in physiology. The best was on "Snake Venom in Relation to Hemolysis, Bacteriolysis, and Toxicity," by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell and Dr. Simon Flexner, the latter not yet a member of the Academy. It is generally known that Dr. Weir Mitchell was the first to study snake-venom scientifically, but it was not until long after his first researches had been laid aside that, by some subconscious process, well illustrating Whewell's theory of scientific ideas, he was brought to the hypothesis that venom con-

sists of a mixture of two distinct poisons. When Dr. Weir Mitchell had conceived the hypothesis, he called upon a friend to collaborate with him in putting it to the test of experiment; and it was not until many months had been devoted to patient work, and discouragement was setting in, that the investigators found that the two poisons could be separated by a dialyser, the one acting intensely upon the higher nervous centres, the other disintegrating the blood. Circumstances then again long arrested the further prosecution of the inquiry, during which time it had been somewhat advanced by European physiologists, until last year Dr. Weir Mitchell proposed to his student, Dr. Simon Flexner, to take up the investigation anew upon certain general lines which he formulated. Dr. Flexner seems to have performed his task with distinguished ability; and he certainly presented the somewhat complicated matter with unusual lucidity and fluency.

Another interesting investigation, by a young physiologist, Dr. Horatio C. Wood, Jr., introduced by Professor Barker, had been read on Tuesday and was illustrated by photographs and sphygmographic traces. The problem could not be more important from an iatric point of view, being that of the peculiarities in the supply of the lungs with vaso-motor apparatus of nerves, and the consequent specific effects of various drugs in incipient pneumonia, etc. The experiments were performed upon dogs, whose chests were opened by median incisions. It was evident that the physiologists of the Academy thought this the weakest link of the work; for when the lungs were so exposed to the air, carefully as the temperature and humidity might be attended to, they were under most abnormal conditions.

One of the stronger of the young biologists, Prof. Henry F. Osborn of Columbia University, put forward an hypothesis of what he called Latent, or Potential, Homology, which he illustrated by a peculiarity in the growth of teeth. When we study the design of the most developed grinding teeth and compare with it the teeth of "recent" horses on the one side and of primates on the other, we find commencing in both these widely separated groups a development of certain folds which are evidently destined to take a certain future development, alike in the two cases. But horses and primates have had no common ancestor for upwards of a million years back, if we accept a chronology whose possible errors can be of no consequence for the present purpose. We appear, therefore, to be confronted with a feature of development which has been lying in *posse* for a million years. What could have been its mode of being during that time? Professor Osborn had two other papers full of interesting ideas. In one of them he proposed to use the features of dolichocephaly and brachycephaly (long and broadheadedness), which have had perhaps an exaggerated esteem among anthropologists, and have been confined to their science, as important factors in the taxonomy of different families of vertebrates.

A paper by Dr. Caswell Gravé, introduced by Prof. W. K. Brooks, was read by the presiding officer. It related to an improved method of rearing marine larvae. Finally to be mentioned is a paper by Mr.

C. S. Peirce upon the logic of the process of drawing historical conclusions from ancient testimonies. This was an elaborate memoir, in which the method of balancing probabilities was combated as being, in most cases, illogical; a different method being developed and defended, with full details of the different conditions to be fulfilled. Three examples were given to illustrate the new method and contrast it with that in vogue among the higher critics. The first related to the Scæpsis story concerning Aristotle's manuscripts; the second to the chronology of the Dialogues of Plato (where the data accumulated by Lutoslawski were employed); and the third to the life and character of Pythagoras, this being selected as showing how to deal with the least trustworthy testimonies.

The Academy received the most charming attentions from the Philadelphians. Provost and Mrs. Harrison gave a reception on Wednesday evening in the Museum of Science and Art. A New Yorker would do well to devote a day to going to Philadelphia to visit that museum, one of the most deeply interesting that the whole world contains, if only for these three departments—the Babylonian remains, including those from Nippur; the Japanese Buddhistic temple; and the Matthew Stewart collection of gems, which is unrivalled in interest by anything of the sort your correspondent has ever seen. On Thursday Dr. Weir Mitchell entertained the Academy at dinner, where were gathered many of the most interesting men in Philadelphia.

M. D.

THE IRISH LITERARY THEATRE.

DUBLIN, October 31, 1901.

The past week in Dublin has been in many ways one of very great interest. There have been exhibitions of paintings by Irish artists (Mr. J. B. Yeats, Mr. Nathaniel Hone, and Mr. J. B. Yeats, jr.), and frequent meetings of those interested in the "Irish revival"; and the Irish Literary Theatre has given its third annual performance. The plays of this year were two, one in English—"Diarmuid and Grania"—by Mr. George Moore and Mr. W. B. Yeats; and one in Gaelic—"Casadh an t-Sugain"—by Dr. Douglas Hyde. To the latter an altogether special interest attaches, as it is the first Gaelic play presented in a Dublin theatre. Both plays received the fullest serious consideration, and the fact that the performances aroused even heated discussion shows pretty clearly that the movement they represent is one of no little significance.

The Irish Literary Theatre was started three years ago by Lady Gregory, Mr. Yeats, and Mr. Edward Martyn, who were afterwards joined by Mr. George Moore. It had for its immediate object the development of Irish dramatic art, through the presentation of original plays on Irish subjects, whether in English or in Gaelic. The movement has had a valuable ally in the Gaelic League, under the Presidency of Dr. Hyde; the aim of the League being to bring about the revival of the Irish spirit, chiefly through the fostering of the Gaelic language. The whole "Gaelic movement," however, aims at nothing short of making Ireland a self-sufficing nation, through the encouragement of all the forces that mean, in the broadest sense of the words, a national culture. It is an

appeal to the native spirit to awake to its own and to recover its treasures of legend and language before they are lost. How far the Irish speech and tradition may be restored to the Irish people, and how far the Irish Theatre has stimulated the Irish intellect, are at present, of course, matters of speculation; but this is certain, that the League is a flourishing organization, and the Theatre has proved that people will come with a keen and critical interest to see an Irish play.

The guarantors of the Theatre proposed that it should continue for three seasons, at the end of which period it would at least be possible to determine whether or not the movement was hopeless, and, if it were not, what steps should be taken to carry it on. Six plays have now been produced: "The Countess Cathleen," by Mr. Yeats; "The Heather Field" and "Maive," by Mr. Martyn; and "The Bending of the Bough," by Mr. Moore, besides the two plays of last week; and the purely tentative part of the project has come to an end. The following steps must, in the nature of things, be experimental, for although the three years have shown that the project is too significant to be sneered at, and too good to be extravagantly praised, yet they have not shown the precise direction that should now be followed.

Municipal endowment of the Theatre has been urged, but this is a hardly probable outcome; doubtless it would be unwise at present to guarantee publicly a scheme that must undergo still a good deal of shaping before it can, in the nature of the case, hope to become wholly national. It would seem to an outsider better to continue, if possible, on pretty nearly the same basis, but increasing the number of performances as circumstances permit, until the movement shall be fairly established as a factor in Irish life. It would be more than a pity if the plan so effectively begun should be allowed to languish. There is in Dublin, not to speak of the rest of Ireland, a public sufficiently interested in dramatic art to make of the Theatre a real institution, provided the plays chosen be not polemic, or didactic, or anything but cleanly dramatic.

Mr. Yeats's desire to present also some of the masterpieces of foreign drama, French, Spanish, Scandinavian, and perhaps Greek, would, if carried out, have the effect of lifting the project out of the reach of faction. For it may in Ireland be difficult to keep the Theatre quite clear of the political and religious strife that enters so vitally into all Irish questions of the present day. To illustrate several different aspects of the reception of the plays, it may be noted that the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin bestowed his episcopal sanction upon them, some people opposed the Theatre because it was called Irish and not Gaelic, some refused to go to see the leading actor in "Lear" later in the week because he had previously acted in the Irish play, and the gallery gods drowned out with Gaelic songs the entr'acte "Funeral March of Diarmuid," because it had been composed by an Englishman. And yet the Gaelic League, which is overwhelmingly Catholic, has several times reelected to its Presidency a Protestant, Dr. Hyde. The total combination of harmonious and discordant elements is not altogether an easy one to deal with.

"Diarmuid and Grania," presented by Mr.

Benson and his company (there is at present no company of Irish players capable of producing a long drama effectively), came in for hostile discussion as well as praise. As a drama written in collaboration by a novelist and a poet, it could hardly be expected to show the same power of dramatic construction as a play put together by a practical playwright. The second act goes well, and rises to an effective climax, but the beginning and concluding acts lack the forceful movement that the tragic story demands. But it is not upon this point that objections have centred; it is upon the dramatists' treatment of Grania's character. The drama contains as heroine what some have termed the only evil woman in Irish legend. Be that as it may, Grania, in the play, is not an attractive character, albeit an interesting study in psychology. The old legend itself tells the story of the wandering lovers who slept in the cromlechs, Diarmuid, warrior of the Fianna, and Grania, daughter of Cormac, King of Tara, and their hunting, for seven years, by Finn MacCumhail, Chief of the Fianna. Cormac has bestowed upon Finn the hand of Grania, but she will have none of him, for he is growing old, and she sets her heart upon Diarmuid, young, beautiful, and a great lover of women. At her wedding-feast she puts witchcraft into the ale of Finn, and flees with her lover. Then for seven years Finn pursues them, but at last a peace is declared. Then, in a great boar hunt, Diarmuid, as had long ago been foretold, receives his death-wound from the boar, and Finn, who brings in his hands water to the dying man, thinks of Grania, and lets the water slip through his fingers, and Diarmuid dies, and Finn marries Grania. As the legend stands, it would be possible, dramatically, to make the marriage of Finn and Grania an event brought about by accident, or by the machinations of Finn, or by those of Grania. The authors have chosen the last instrumentality.

The drama presents three main moments in the story—the love of Diarmuid and Grania and their flight, the reconciliation of the two heroes, and Diarmuid's mysterious death; and makes out of Grania not the striking figure of the legend, but an almost modern woman, discontented with her environment, whose love for Diarmuid wanes on account of the monotony of their pastoral existence, and who craves too late the excitement of life with the gray and battle-stained warrior, Finn. And thus in the drama the dulness of the shepherd's life in the valley is emphasized, and not the thrilling escapes from Finn's early pursuit; and thus it is Grania herself who faithlessly brings about the reconciliation that she may be near Finn. The spectators of the play were very prompt in attributing to the author of 'Evelyn Innes' the choice of a legend involving a character that presented such possibilities of treatment; but whether or not this ascription was correct, there can be no doubt that a drama not containing an immoral woman would have been more acceptable to an audience proud of all that is beautiful in Irish legend. The drama will certainly read better than it acts; the absence of a strong moving character to dominate the scene, the dialogue that in reading is appropriately explanatory, but that in acting retards the movement—these are things which point a distinction between literary and dramatic that

the play as a play does not sufficiently observe. But, in spite of all this, "Diarmuid and Grania" is an interesting piece of work, with many moments of unusual poetic beauty.

Regarding Dr. Hyde's Gaelic play, "The Twisting of the Rope," there seemed to be one verdict—charming. There is no way of determining how many understood the language—there must have been many, to judge from the quick response to the good points in the dialogue; and fortunately for those to whom Gaelic was Greek, Lady Gregory's translation had appeared a few days before. Although a dramatic incident rather than a play, Dr. Hyde's little sketch was full of Celtic color, vivacity, and good humor. The scene is in a Munster farmhouse a century ago, where a dance has been going on. Hanrahan, a wandering poet out of Connaught, has come in, and with his sweet speech has won the ear, and perhaps the heart, of Oona, betrothed of Shamus. Except to Oona, Hanrahan is no welcome guest, for, in addition to making love to another's sweetheart, he has contemptuously broken up the dance, since no one in Munster but himself, the Connaughtman, and the peerless Oona can dance properly. Shamus and Oona's mother plot to get Hanrahan out of the house, and it must not be done by force, for the poet "has a curse that would split the trees." By the lively stratagem of declaring that a stage-coach on the road has just been overturned and is in dire need of a rope, which no one has or can make, they induce Hanrahan to begin to twist a hay rope, and as at last in the process he walks backward through the door, they bang it shut, and the poet, outside the threshold where his curses are futile, is left to howl terrific anathema while the gay dance begins again to the music of the Irish pipes, and Shamus chuckles, "Where's Connaught now?" Given by amateur actors of the Gaelic League, Dr. Hyde himself acting Hanrahan with great charm and fervor, the little play was a thorough success.

MARTIN W. SAMPSON.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. have undertaken a "variorum and definitive edition" of the verse and prose works of Edward FitzGerald, in seven large volumes, with a complete bibliography and personal and literary notes by George Bentham, and a preface by Edmund Gosse. The Merrymount Press will manufacture it in three limited editions. The same firm announce 'Camera Shots at Big Game,' by A. G. Wallihan.

'John Chinaman,' by B. H. Parker, is promised shortly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

'Thomas Wolsey, Legate and Reformer,' by Ethelred L. Taunton, is in the press of John Lane, together with a new volume of 'Later Poems,' by Alice Meynell, and still another edition of White's *Selborne*, edited by the late Grant Allen, and with upwards of 200 illustrations by Edmund H. New, for the topography and natural history alike.

'Nanna: A Story of Danish Love,' by Holger Drachmann, and a life of Herbert Spencer by President Jordan of Leland Stanford University, are announced by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Numerous, as usual, at this season, are the

reprints of standard works, some made more "popular" in style and price, others beautified or glorified. In the first category stands Motley's 'Dutch Republic,' in two volumes (Crowell), for, in spite of many portrait and other illustrations, the thin paper and rather condensed typography make unattractive pages. The Dent-Lippincott three-volume edition of 'Vanity Fair,' in the series of Thackeray's prose works, is externally and internally in simple good taste, the print liberal, and Mr. Charles E. Brock's illustrations, partly in sanguine, partly pen-and-ink in the text, are clever and ornamental. The books are of handy size. Intermediate between the foregoing in quality of presswork are Charles Lever's 'Tony Butler' and 'Fortunes of Glencore, and A Rent in the Cloud' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The full-page illustrations are from drawings by E. J. Wheeler and W. Cubitt Cooke; not remarkable in themselves, they lend something to the good appearance of the two volumes. From Doxey's, in San Francisco, we have a box of eight flexible leather-bound "Lark Classics" fitted for the pocket—the inevitable Omar, Shakspeare's Sonnets, the Love Sonnets of Proteus, Mackay's Love Letters of a Violinist, Swinburne's *Laus Veneris*, Kipling's Departmental Ditties and Barrack-Room Ballads, and (alone in prose) Richard Jefferies's 'Story of My Heart.' They recommend themselves without pretension.

Mrs. Jameson's 'Shakspeare's Heroines' has a proper place in Dent's "Miranda's Library" (New York: Dutton). Rubrication and illustration have not been spared in freshening up this old favorite, and the result is a very pretty book save in the squareness of the back binding. The same domestic firm, in conjunction with Ernest Nister, London, reproduces once more Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspeare,' with illustrations of good quality by W. Paget, some in color. The typography is open, and the general appearance handsome.

After ten years, Mr. Edmund Gosse has prepared for the press a new edition of his 'Gossip in a Library' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is not important to make new comment upon Mr. Gosse's discursive way as it is exhibited in this collection of critical, biographical, and bibliographical notes. In order to give his reprint "a certain character of freshness," he has added, for America only, an account of the first edition (1789) of White's *Selborne*. From this paper the bibliophile with a quick eye for the essential fact, however enwrapped in rhetoric, may gather the information which shall save him from the purchase of a mutilated or spurious copy of that rare edition of a charming book.

Percy Bate's 'English Pre-Raphaelite Painters,' originally issued in quarto form, now reappears in octavo (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan); but, if less sumptuous, more valuable for reference, as the text has been revised and brought up to date, and the illustrations increased.

The Phonographic Institute Company of Cincinnati issue once more 'The Phonographic Dictionary and Phrase-Book' of Benn Pitman and Jerome B. Howard. Unlike Munson's Dictionary, which substitutes literal signs for the shorthand characters of his system, this work displays the characters themselves, ingeniously gaining

space for them by grouping words in trip-lets. The value of these works for solitary study and practice is too obvious to need insisting on.

The extent to which philanthropy has become an occupation, not to say a business, is proved by the appearance of a second edition of Prof. C. R. Henderson's 'The Social Spirit in America' (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.).

Two more volumes are added to Professor Bailey's "Rural Science Series," published by Macmillan. One of them, 'The Feeding of Animals,' by Whitman Howard Jordan, consists so largely of technical matter as to make it useless to the ordinary farmer. The other, 'Farm Poultry,' by George C. Watson, is more popular in character, although not superior to many other treatises on the subject. The later volumes of this series do not compare favorably with some of the earlier ones, and for practical purposes its value decreases as its numbers enlarge. Farmers need to have their sources of information few and easily reached.

The sixth volume of Harper's "Portrait Collection of Short Stories" is entitled 'Over the Plum-Pudding,' and contains a number of tales by Mr. J. K. Bangs, gathered from the various periodicals in which they first appeared, and characterized by his well-known vein of humor.

The popular curiosity about men of letters and their belongings has of late been fed less by books than by innumerable items and articles in magazines and newspapers. Twenty-two sketches of this sort, "personal descriptions and interviews," duly supervised and brought down to date, with an introduction by the editor, Francis Whiting Halsey, make up 'American Authors and their Homes' (James Pott & Co.). Except John Fiske, to whom a brief tribute is paid, all the subjects are still with us. The collection is not exhaustive; thus, Mr. Winston Churchill is not included, nor Mr. R. H. Davis, nor Mr. Clemens, nor any ladies. The youngest man here presented is Mr. Paul L. Ford; the latest to become celebrated is Mr. Seton, hitherto known as Seton-Thompson. The oldest in years and fame is he who wrote 'Reveries of a Bachelor,' more than fifty years ago; next to Mr. Mitchell come Col. Higginson and Mr. Stoddard. Between these patriarchs and the recent recruits are Mr. Stedman, Mr. Stockton, Mr. Aldrich, Mr. Howells, Mr. Burroughs, and a dozen others. To each notice is prefixed, as a substratum of solid information, the year and place of birth, with a partial list of publications. The sketches are necessarily genial; they afford a few amusing points, as that 'The Hon. Peter Stirling' "lay on the shelves practically unsold for four months," and was read in California, Michigan, and Wisconsin before it took hold nearer home; also, that Burmese anxiety as to 'The Lady or the Tiger' cannot be assuaged, since Mr. Stockton has "no earthly idea" which door was opened. The eighteen illustrations mostly show rooms or houses in contrast with the humbleness of Poe's cottage at Fordham.

'The Reminiscences of a Mississippian in Peace and War,' by Lieut.-Col. Frank A. Montgomery (Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co.), consist of personal recollections of the men and services of the First Mississippi Cavalry, which the author led

through most of the civil war. The operations of the regiment were largely in the department of the Mississippi until the Atlanta campaign, when it formed a portion of the flank protection of Johnston's Confederate forces. The writer stayed in the war until the end, being taken prisoner in April, 1865, by Gen. Wilson's command at Selma. His devout loyalty to the Confederacy makes him extremely chary of unfavorable comments upon any of his superiors, however clear it may be that he laments their conduct, while, after the old-school Southern manner, his regimental associates are uniformly if somewhat monotonously praised for gallantry and patriotism. Slavery is regretfully recalled as the idyllic period of a race of leaders of men of stainless integrity, when for wrongs, real or fancied, satisfaction was sought, "not by the deadly pistol, concealed in the hip-pocket, but by a meeting upon the field of honor, with mutual friends to see fair play." Noteworthy, in the course of the history, is the number of instances of military acquaintances killed in "personal difficulties," as if war's maw were not exacting enough. But the author has no bitterness, but only respect for his old adversaries, and, if he thinks the negro impossible as a citizen, the conviction is not accompanied with any expression of desire to reverse the fate which befell the ancient social order of his beloved South.

Mr. J. H. Slater's English 'Book-Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock) reaches its fifteenth volume, with contents expanded by minute description of an unusual number of books never seen in auction-rooms since this record was started. The amount realized on sales during the season of 1900-1901 was £130,275, of which sum not less than £4,745 was obtained for three books—a First Folio Shakspeare, Caxton's 'Ryall Book,' and 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The editor notes the fluctuations of appreciation and quest: "The original editions of Mr. Kipling's various stories are now neglected; the Dickens-Thackeray-Cruikshank collectors still sleep; the Badminton books have fallen away; and the works from the Kelmscott Press are apparently resting, all except the Chaucer, which has now advanced to eighty-three pounds." The admirable index shows by year the edition of each reference. We remark that the first edition of Dante with Landino's commentary (1481) fetched but £1 more than Edward Fitzgerald's 'Salámán and Absál' (1856)—£32 and £31.

'Longmans' New School Atlas' is edited anew by George C. Chisholm of the Royal Geographical Society and C. H. Leete of the American. It is a tall octavo, comprising forty maps indexed in the margin. One peculiarity of this work is that the index of place names is fuller than the maps, location being achieved by latitude and longitude, and also, where practicable, by crosses upon the map. Again, the maps have been drawn on one scale or fraction of a scale. A uniform system of coloring for elevation has been adhered to. Seven sheets are devoted to the United States, whose territorial development, geology, rainfall, commerce, density of population, etc., are represented.

Great compactness has been obtained in H. W. Putzger's 'Historischer Schul-Atlas zur Alten, Mittleren und Neuen Geschichte' (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), by means of folding

sheets of which the wings (so to speak) are utilized as regular pages. The New World is neglected, except for the charts of discovery, and the three (on one page) exhibiting our Atlantic Coast down to 1763, the United States at the outbreak of secession, and since 1776. The present edition of this excellent work is the twenty-fifth, and revision has been extensive; nearly one hundred maps have been added.

The book-plate fraternity will not overlook Walter von Zur Westen's 'Exlibris (Büchernerzeichen),' published by Velhagen & Klasing (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), one of the "Sammlung Illustrierter Monographien" of the Leipzig firm. It is profusely illustrated for all ages and countries, the author's own plate (at p. 49) being among the best—a satyr on a pile of law-books watering the roses that spring from their dusty leaves. North America is relegated to the very end, and gets a scant page. There is an index of designers and engravers. Many of the plates are full-page, some colored.

The public libraries of Chicago and Evans-ton, with two rather important exceptions, united in the compilation of a List of Serials, complete and current, which has just been published by the Chicago Library Club. It is brought down to the close of 1900, and embraces nearly 7,000 serials. "The unusually distinctive character of the larger libraries of the city," we read in the preface, "is shown by the comparatively small amount of duplication." Sixty-five per cent. of the total are to be found in only one library. The edition of this List is limited, but a few copies are obtainable, at \$1.00 each, by addressing Mr. C. R. Perry, Chicago Public Library. It is gratifying to be able to add that this labor of love will be continued in an annual cumulative supplement by the John Crerar Library.

The Library of Congress has just assumed a function that rightfully belongs to it, namely, of effecting a great economy for all other libraries by furnishing "a copy or copies of any of the catalogue cards (a) which it is currently printing; (b) which it has heretofore printed, so far as copies of these can be supplied from stock." The Library has now within its walls a branch plant from the Government Printing-Office, and it is capable of meeting the demand for author cards without entailing any extra expense upon the cost of administration. The charge will be not more than two cents a card to subscribing libraries, in place of the average cost of from 25 to 35 cents per book. The library is now printing cards at the rate of 200 titles a day. In the case of copyrighted books, its early receipt of them enables it to list them in its Weekly Catalogue in time for checking and ordering the desired cards. In certain groups subject headings will be suggested upon the cards. Details of ordering, subscription, etc., are set forth in a circular dated October 28, 1901.

It is good news that the next edition of the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' will contain an index to the several catalogues which compose it. This index, based on the Annual of 1901, is already in a forward state of preparation, and will be completed by the new books of 1902 as soon as the later catalogues are available.

The third Bulletin of the Free Library of Philadelphia consists of Indexes to the First Lines and to the Subjects of the Poems of Robert Herrick, prepared by Mr. Richard E.

Wilson; and a glossary supplied by Mr. John Ashhurst—the whole under Mr. John Thomson's direction. This labor professes to have been undertaken primarily in the interest of librarians plagued with inquiries for poems remembered only by a (first) line; but it will serve other ends. Lines beginning with "God" fill two pages; those with "I" nearly as many, but we may not infer conceit from this, remembering the essential subjectivity of poetry. "Love" is rather seldom found at the fore, but "If," "What," and "When" are favorite openings.

The *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston) begins its projected *Mayflower* genealogies with "Stephen Hopkins and his Descendants" in the October number. The second, "George Soule and his Descendants," will, it is hoped, appear in the January number.

The proposed new German tariff is given in the Consular Reports for November, the tables showing also the present rates. From a comparison of these it appears that the duties on food products are about doubled, and this notwithstanding the fact that the number of persons in Germany engaged in agriculture has decreased in twenty years from 43 per cent. to 33 per cent., though the population has increased in the same time more than ten millions. Low average harvests are reported from the larger part of Europe, but in Portugal there has been such an exceptionally large vintage that a provisional suppression of the tax on internal consumption has been asked for in order to decrease the stock on hand and make room for the new wine. Among other subjects treated are the electrical high-speed and waste-heat auxiliary engine experiments at Berlin; and Chambers of Commerce in foreign countries. The United States have these now only in Paris and Brussels, and their establishment is recommended in all the great cities as being of "immense advantage in furthering the expansion of American commerce."

Seoul, once one of the filthiest cities in Asia, has so far made progress in the virtue which is next to godliness, under the direction of Koreans who have lived in Washington, that now the construction of a system of water works for the Korean capital is assured. The 659 hydrants, reservoir holding about 10,000,000 gallons, street mains, and crib in the River Han are to benefit especially the common people. The Emperor's fiftieth birthday, on August 7, was celebrated with national rejoicings, banquets, and music by the palace band, playing European instruments and music. A handsome Japanese post-office building was opened in Seoul on September 1. An important paper on the geographical and political aspects of the Seoul-Fusan Railway, which passes through the richest part of Korea—287 miles long, with forty stations—on which work has begun at both ends, and valuable chapters on Korean proverbs and mediæval history, with news notes, make attractive the September number of the *Korea Review*.

The Librarian of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., will be grateful to any reader of the *Nation* who can aid him in finding a copy of the following book: J. Carpentier, 'Histoire Généalogique de la très-ancienne et très-noblesse famille de Herlin,' Leyden, 1669, folio.

—Dr. Richard Garnett's 'Essays of an Ex-Librarian' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) furnish some admirable examples of serious con-

temporary criticism. The essays on "The Poetry of Coleridge," "Beckford's Vathek," "Thomas Moore," "Thomas Love Peacock," and "Matthew Arnold" have served as introductions to reprints of the work of these authors. The fine texture and full color of the criticism in them are already known to many readers. Seven other papers—six reprinted from various periodicals, and one from the Warner Library—combine to give the collection readability and distinction. The essay "On Translating Homer" affords some fine specimens of Homeric translation in a rather untrammelled, sonorous, and swift pentameter couplet. Metrically speaking, there are excellent grounds for Dr. Garnett's plea for the adoption of this form. It is, however, more likely to be successful in the translation of episodic selections from Homer than in a complete version. The clear metallic ring and endlessly echoing rhyme of Pope's couplets have so dinned our ears that it is exceedingly difficult to keep the sing-song out of any long poetical composition in this form. Dr. Garnett has not always kept it out. There is even better poetry in his renderings of some remarkable Italian sonnets, in the sketch of "The Love Story of Luigi Tansillo." The range of scholarship which an "ex-Librarian" may possess is exhibited in a close historical criticism of "The Story of Gycia," sometime queen of the Chersonites; in a searching discussion of "The Date and Occasion of 'The Tempest'"; and in an unusually (in this decade) sensible and sympathetic study of Emerson. Not the least interesting essays in the volume are "Shelley and Lord Beaconsfield" and "Shelley's Views on Art." The well-known catholicity of Dr. Garnett's literary taste is displayed in the above titles. The soundness of his judgments may be felt by any one who will read his work in connection with that of almost any of the so-called "suggestive" critics. The 'Essays of an Ex-Librarian' are bookish essays of the best class, by a writer who is more than a bookman.

—One of the penalties of sudden literary fame, especially when it falls to a clergyman, is that he is asked to undertake work for which he has no special fitness. It was so with Dr. John Watson (Ian Maclaren), when he was asked to write the Life of Jesus, which is now republished by McClure, Phillips & Co. It is a far cry from Dr. Watson's 'Life of the Master' to the critical study of the Gospels in the 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' and it was hardly to be expected that Dr. Watson would adopt the results formulated in that study. Had he done so, it would have shortened his story by two-thirds of the three hundred pages that it covers. But he has simply parted company with the critics altogether, and his chapters are little more than a series of edifying homilies upon the life and character of Jesus. They smell of the lamp as they do not of Palestine. If easy writing makes hard reading, these labored paraphrases of the New Testament story should be easy reading. Yet they are not particularly so. An occasional critical judgment is convincing that Dr. Watson would not have been more helpful if he had been more critical. The colored illustrations are based on drawings made in Palestine. One fears that the exigencies of the process have accentuated certain colors at the expense of truth. Mr. Clifford How-

ard's 'Story of a Young Man' (L. C. Page & Co.) sins much more grossly than Dr. Watson's in the direction of rhetorical excess. The writer's dissatisfaction with the New Testament simplicity is shown by his attempt throughout to make a paraphrase of it in pretty words. He professes to have written a sketch of the human Jesus, but this does not imply any diminution of the miraculous element except as the story ends with the death of Jesus and does not include his resurrection.

—'The Fallen Stuarts,' by Mr. F. W. Head (Macmillan), is a dissertation which gained the Prince Consort prize at Cambridge, and has recently been published with some modifications of its original form. From the dethronement of James II. until after the Forty-five, the exiled Stuarts had a wide range of experience at the different courts of Europe, and were frequently a factor to be reckoned with by sovereigns and Prime Ministers. Taken alone, the title of this volume might mean almost anything, but Mr. Head's main subject is the part which was occupied by the later Stuarts in the wars and diplomacy of their period. The study is not in the least biographical or local. It is widely comparative, and the analysis of individual character plays a small part beside the development of international intrigue. Mr. Head takes care to explain that certain portions of his work represent original research, while others do not. "The plan adopted was to obtain, so far as may be, first-hand information for the occasions in which the Stuart House came prominently forward in the diplomacy and wars of the time. For the rest, I have tried to show how far the great courts of Europe were busy in different parts of the Continent, in order to explain why they made use of the fallen dynasty at the particular times that they did. But this has required the use of well-known authorities rather than original work." The most important source of information which has been employed is the correspondence of Cardinal Gualterio, the papal nuncio in Paris under Clement XI. This now belongs to the British Museum, and is undoubtedly an authority of high value. The numerous passages cited from it in the appendix (amounting altogether to thirty-five pages) show how varied are its contents, and how thoroughly it discloses the course of Stuart diplomacy in the days of James III. Mr. Head takes the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as marking the close of Stuart influence upon the affairs of Europe. "Neither as Catholic, nor as Pretender, nor as tool against the naval tyranny of England, was there any hope for James or Charles Stuart after 1748." The chief interest of this essay lies, perhaps, in its illustration of the prominence which religious politics might assume as late as the eighteenth century. Viewed thus, the financial aspects of the Jacobite movement are worth examining. Mr. Head's investigations are of a kind to invite detailed comment. However, we can only say of his book that, besides embodying the results of faithful research, it is well arranged and well written.

—The contribution of the Latin Department to the Yale Bicentennial Publications ('On Principles and Methods in Latin Syntax,' by E. P. Morris; New York: Scribners) is a severe indictment of current methods

in the investigation of the principles of Latin syntax. Professor Morris contends, and with reason, that the "results" obtained by present methods are largely based upon assumptions either demonstrably false or, at any rate, incapable of proof. A presupposition of regularity and system has held sway over the minds of most students in a field where the regular is really the exceptional, and absence of system a fundamental characteristic. Livy, for instance, may express four successive acts, no one of more importance than another, by a *cum* clause, a perfect participle of a dependent verb, an ablative absolute, and an indicative; or, again, three entirely similar qualities may be described by an adjective, a genitive, and a relative clause. For convincing illustration of the predominance of the irregular in language, Professor Morris cites the masses of unclassifiable facts brought together in such works as Brugmann's 'Grundriss' and Lindsay's 'Latin Language.' The attempt to trace words and constructions back to their origins, as exemplified, for instance, in Bennett's Latin Grammar, has assumed an undue importance, the author thinks. "The origin of *an*, if it could be determined with considerable probability, would contribute but little towards the correct theory of the use of *an* in single and double questions." Amid the host of contemporaneous elements entering into linguistic structure at any given period, origins may count for very little. One goes astray in assuming for a group of apparently related phenomena a single definite germ. We must not expect to trace to a single original conception the various relations expressed in extant Latin by a case-ending or a mood form: the progress of language has been from the vague to the definite, not the reverse. Contrary to the usual assumption, inflectional terminations do not give definiteness to an inflected form; the ending is altogether vague, and the combination gets its measure of definiteness from the stem. With the same adjective termination, for instance, *Romanus* and *humanus* vary greatly in definiteness because of the difference in the stems. We have given enough illustrations, perhaps, to indicate the tendency of the book. The formulation of a system of syntactical principles is still impossible, we are told, because the principles are still so largely undiscovered. The book contains much in the way of positive suggestion towards the most promising methods for their discovery, and we predict for it a deep influence upon the work of American Latinists, however serious may be the dissent which many of its propositions are likely at first to call forth.

—Those who recollect the consternation with which well-born New Englanders heard that the President of their oldest historical society believed that John Winthrop and the other leaders in the founding of Massachusetts were no better, whether judged by moral or by intellectual standards, than Philip II. of Spain, can guess the feeling with which conservative Mexican scholars have received the publication, with the semi-official imprint of a Government press, of a work which shows that the conquerors of the Spanish-American empire were brutal and unprincipled rascals, a disgrace to civilization and a shame to their race. The author, Sr. D. Genaro Garcia, bears the name of one of the best

families in Mexico, with a longer and not less worthy record than that of Adams in Massachusetts; and his volume, entitled 'Carácter de la Conquista Española' (Mexico: Oficina Tipográfica de la Secretaría de Fomento), is a most careful and scholarly attempt to throw light upon the real motives and character of the Conquistadores. In form it is a patchwork of extracts from the contemporary narratives embodying the evidence from which the author derives his opinions. Fortunately, Sr. Garcia possesses literary as well as historical instincts, and his work, although inevitably hard reading for those who are unaccustomed to the vagaries of sixteenth-century scribes and printers, is, despite its antiquated spellings and old-time phraseology, a surprisingly successful weaving together of the different accounts into a readable and coherent narrative of the events of the conquest of Spanish America, and especially of Mexico, as described by the men who knew the details at first hand. Sr. Garcia has very decided opinions, but he leaves the expression of them to those whom they most affect. Out of their own mouths he convicts the soldiers, priests, and administrators who gave to Spain her power in America, of revolting and reckless disregard of everything that ought to characterize civilized men in their dealings with what we call the inferior races. Naturally, such an attack upon the fair fame of the heroes of Spanish America could not pass unchallenged. Several eminent Mexican writers rallied promptly to the defence of the accepted version of their history, and replies and counter-attacks have followed. Out of it all comes one very promising result. Sr. Garcia has joined with another of the younger school of Mexican historians, Sr. D. Luis Gonzalez Obregon, in establishing a *Boletín Histórico Mexicano*, in which they promise to print, in addition to their contributions to the discussion, the original narratives and documentary sources, accurately and without abridgment. They will begin with a new edition of Bernal Diaz's 'Verdadera Historia,' of which they have secured a fresh transcript from the author's manuscript, still preserved in Guatemala.

AULARD'S POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Histoire Politique de la Révolution Française. Origines et Développement de la Démocratie et de la République (1789-1804). Par A. Aulard. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

Every one who attempts to write an important work upon a period or a movement of modern times is sore beset by the bulk of his materials. He has one hard problem in choosing what he shall read, but it is less critical than the other problem of choosing what he shall present after his twenty years of research are ended. Mr. Charles Francis Adams has expressed his views regarding the limitations which are placed upon the modern historian, and the way in which the best results can be secured. The scholar who is preparing for his great book should explore the inner recesses of his subject, publishing from time to time critical essays or monographs on special topics. Then, after he has finished his preparation, let him offer to the public

in concise form, and without parade of intermediate processes, the fruit of all his diligence. His mature opinion, his summing-up, after he has mastered a certain portion of history, will be his profitable addition to existing literature.

We mention this standard because M. Aulard can fairly claim to be tried by it. No movement in ancient or modern times has been the theme of so many books as the French Revolution. Even if we accept the dates taken in the present volume, 1789-1804, and leave aside the military annals of the Empire, it embraces such an enormous amount of writing that first-hand investigation at every point becomes a task beyond human attainment. M. Aulard has therefore confined himself to the political progress of France from the meeting of the States-General to the end of the Consulate. 'L'histoire économique et sociale de la Révolution est dispersée en tant de sources qu'il est actuellement impossible, dans le cours d'une vie d'homme, de les aborder toutes ou même d'en aborder les principales.' But while the social and economic aspects of the Revolution are thus baffling to the historian who uses only original authorities, the course of politics can be followed out by one man, if, like M. Aulard, he be a giant of industry.

"J'ai commencé, en 1879, par étudier les discours des orateurs, et, depuis quinze ans, dans mon cours à la Sorbonne, j'ai étudié les institutions, les partis, la vie des grands individus. J'ai donc eu le temps matériel d'explorer les sources de mon sujet. Si la forme de ce livre sent l'improvisation, mes recherches ont été lentes, et je les crois complètes dans l'ensemble. Je ne pense pas avoir omis une source importante, ni avoir émis une seule assertion qui ne soit directement tirée des sources."

The last statement is a bold blast, but it is not boastfully intended, nor will it seem incredible to those who have for years watched the editorial labors of M. Aulard and his frequent articles. He makes no secret of thinking his "documentation" perfect, and probably no man of our age is so well equipped by knowledge to sketch the political history of the French Revolution. His chapters in the 'Histoire Générale' have already extended his reputation beyond France, and paved a way for the volume in which he gives, without a show of pedantry or effort, the results of his long reading.

Like Mignet, Louis Blanc, Thiers, Lamartine, Carlyle, Taine, Sybel, and all the others, M. Aulard has his point of view and his method. Or, rather, his method is that which every critical historian of our day seeks to observe. He makes an honest and impartial study of the texts the groundwork of his opinions, and keeps his personal preferences out of sight, so that he can conclude his preface with such words as these: "Quant à l'état d'esprit où je me suis trouvé en écrivant ce livre, je dirai seulement que j'ai voulu, dans la mesure de mes forces, faire œuvre d'historien, et non pas plaider une thèse. J'ai l'ambition que mon travail puisse être considéré comme un exemple d'application de la méthode historique à l'étude d'une époque défigurée par la passion et par la légende." To have worked since 1879 on the French Revolution without meeting views which one would take pleasure in confuting would be an unheard-of experience, and M. Aulard holds strong opinions. Yet we have seldom found him departing from a tone of strict impartiality towards individuals. By way of ex-

ception; he alludes sharply, on page 46, to Saint-René Taillandier's 'Les Renégats de 1789,' and on page 115 he says that the criticism of the Constitution which Louis XVI. drew up after his return from Varennes was much more subtle than Taine's.

M. Aulard sympathizes with the ideals of the Revolution, and is attached to the aims which are foreshadowed in the Declaration of Rights. The Revolution, properly defined, is the endeavor to secure equality of rights and national sovereignty. On the 4th of August, 1789, after the *séance royale* and the storming of the Bastille had laid bare the weakness of the crown, the whole feudal fabric was destroyed by the abolition of privileges. During the construction of the new state, the two principles of equal rights and national sovereignty were more often invoked than any others. Voltaire used the words democracy and republic as though they were synonymous. M. Aulard distinguishes sharply between them. He associates "democracy" with the idea of equal rights, and "republic" with the idea of national sovereignty. Neither of the two conceptions was realized at once—that is, in the autumn of 1789—for the Constituent Assembly required a property qualification from voters, and stopped short when it had changed an absolute into a limited monarchy. The political history of the Revolution is, according to M. Aulard, the story of the vicissitudes through which the principles of equal rights and the principle of national sovereignty passed between the meeting of the States-General and the establishment of the Empire. His division of these fifteen years is conformed to four separate stages in the development of the democracy and the republic. The first covers the period of the Constituent and Legislative Assemblies, when the democratic and republican party was being formed. The second coincides with the sessions of the National Convention, when the Monarchy was overthrown by the Republic and the true spirit of the Revolution triumphed over the obstacles erected by the Constitution of 1791. The third is the age of the Directory and of the bourgeois Republic. The fourth is the period of the Consulate, which M. Aulard terms "le républicanisme plébiscitaire." There are no digressions into the social, economic, or military history of the Revolution, and one seeks in vain for any love of picturesque events. The storming of the Bastille is simply an affair which had profound political consequences, the march to Versailles is dismissed with two lines, and the *coup d'état* of Brumaire is described with the same baldness which the London *Times* observes in reporting a common burglary or murder.

By far the greater part of M. Aulard's work is occupied with an account of the changes through which the Revolution ran prior to the beginning of the Directory. Indeed, the interest centres in the years 1792-95, or between the suspension of the King on the 10th of August and the repeal of universal suffrage. The Constituent Assembly and the National Convention stand for such different conceptions of the political *summum bonum* that we are led to ask how M. Aulard regards each, in itself and in its relation to the progress of the Revolution. He applauds the Convention rather than the Constituent. The men of 1789 failed to grasp the meaning of the forces which they arous-

ed, or, worse still, they played false with their avowed principles. While they professed the most democratic sentiments, they distrusted the common man; and, by drawing their false distinction between active and passive citizens, they gave the lie to the Declaration of Rights. They acted behind a veil, and it was the boast of radical orators that they would tear away this emblem of bourgeois selfishness. The rapid spread of democratic doctrines among the masses through the clubs and by the newspapers brought the middle class face to face with a fact which its representatives in the Constituent unduly neglected. The folly and bad faith of Louis XVI. prevented the creation of a strong national monarchy. The bourgeoisie hastened to snatch political privilege for itself. The masses were at the same moment stirred by the fierce onset of events and by the proclamation of equality. Accordingly, the legislation of the Constituent was but a stop-gap, and for M. Aulard's purpose the main fact of this opening era was the rise of a democratic party which refused to be satisfied with limited citizenship and unequal rights.

Nevertheless, the cry for a republic was not raised until a surprisingly late date. M. Aulard distinguishes between republican sentiment of a loose kind and an active propaganda. He claims to have investigated the matter minutely, and he can find no trace of a republican sect or group when the Revolution began. There were those who felt stirred by republican aspirations, but they believed that the dimensions of France excluded her from comparison with the city states of Greece and mediæval Italy. The Monarchy, too, had always been associated with the rise of the nation, and the embryo republicans were all nationalists. Camille Desmoulins was an avowed republican of the theoretical stamp before Robespierre or any other prominent leader declared against the monarchical régime. However, he stood alone, and not till the autumn of 1790 did a republican party come into existence. It was small at first, and somewhat obscure until the flight to Varennes brought it recruits. Even after the war with Austria broke out in 1792, the destruction of the throne was not a certainty.

Measured by M. Aulard's conception, the 10th of August was the culminating day of the Revolution, for universal suffrage was then decreed, and, on the suspension of Louis XVI., monarchy was virtually abolished in favor of the Republic. The lines of equal rights and national sovereignty converge to the summer of 1792, and then the Republic enters at birth upon its struggle with Europe and the royalist districts of France. Although the Girondists disavowed all share in the scheme for establishing federalism, they were thought to accept it privately, and after their arrest nearly two-thirds of the departments rose against Paris, the Convention, and a system of centralization which reduced them for a time to nothingness. M. Aulard defends the Terrorists against the charge of having deserted the Declaration of Rights when they violated the liberty of the press, private freedom, and the principle of popular election. He recalls the critical circumstances of 1793, and praises the Convention more for having proclaimed liberty of conscience, and separated Church from State, than he blames it for having resorted to emergency

measures. A passage from his criticism of the Terror will go far towards showing the trend of the whole book:

"Les chefs de ce gouvernement violèrent souvent le principe de la liberté individuelle; ils firent couler le sang; ils persécutèrent des Français; ils étouffèrent la liberté de la presse; ils établirent une dictature tyrannique; ils en vinrent, ces démocrates, à supprimer presque toutes les élections populaires. Mais ils ne se résignèrent à ces violences que forcés par les événements, que pour amener le triomphe ultérieur de ces principes de 1789 dont l'Europe monarchique poursuivait la ruine. . . . Cette victoire une fois remportée, ils avaient tous l'intention, qu'ils annonçaient sans cesse, de faire le contraire de ce qu'ils firent en l'an II., c'est-à-dire d'organiser la démocratie républicaine dans la liberté, l'égalité et la fraternité. Les plus violents d'entre eux s'accordèrent à présenter à l'opinion ce régime terroriste comme un expédient provisoire."

Into M. Aulard's history of the Directory and Consulate we are unable to enter, but we can, at least, present one or two of the general statements regarding the Revolution which he places at the end of his last chapter. The Revolution, he thinks, was not caused by any individual hero, by Mirabeau, Danton, or Robespierre. It was largely anonymous, or one can better say that the French nation was the hero. The personnel of the period—Mirabeau perhaps excepted—was not higher than that of political life in France to-day, and the decline of talent after the Terror was an accident which assisted Bonaparte. The secret of his success was the imperfect education of the French. They were not far enough advanced to exercise their sovereignty. The leaders of the Convention saw this, and instruction of the people was their programme. Napoleon, on the contrary, feared the spirit of enlightenment, and as despot did all in his power to retard it. Yet, despite the imperial reaction which abolished liberty for the time, and equality in part, the social effects of the Revolution remained and were diffused through Europe. "Et c'est ce qui explique qu'après sa chute, quand ses résultats furent contestés par les royalistes revenus d'émigration, ce Napoléon Bonaparte qui avait désorganisé l'œuvre politique de la Révolution autant qu'il l'avait pu, parut être et put se dire l'homme de la Révolution."

M. Aulard's 'Histoire Politique' equals a volume of the 'Histoire Générale' in size and length. We have accordingly touched the fringe of it, and no more. It, in turn, touches only the most important subjects among thousands which the study of the French Revolution suggests and involves. M. Aulard, having devoted years of unstinted labor to the political history of the movement, selects its two largest aspects, and keeps them before him from first to last. The book is finely proportioned, and in learning it is the work of a master. Its attitude towards the political problems of the Revolution will not appeal to every one. For ourselves, we must avow a higher admiration of the Constituent than M. Aulard professes. But he cannot be taxed with the vice of special pleading, and he rightly depicts the Revolution in the light of accomplishment rather than of failure.

BROWNELL'S FRENCH ART.

French Art: Classic and Contemporary Painting and Sculpture. By W. C. Brownell. New and enlarged edition, with

forty-eight illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

We reviewed this book at some length upon its first appearance, and while combating some of its doctrines, and pointing out what we conceived to be its errors of judgment, endeavored to do justice to its quality as a dignified and subtle piece of criticism and a valuable addition to the literature of art. Apart from its enlarged and handsomer form and the presence of illustrations, the interest for us of the present edition is in what the author, after nine years, has chosen to add and not to add; and the light these things throw upon his point of view.

What he has added is a supplementary chapter entirely devoted to Rodin, who had already been treated with an enthusiasm in somewhat marked contrast with the cool and analytical manner of the rest of the book. The result is a curious disproportion in what purports to be a general work, and this disproportion is clearly marked in the list of illustrations. Twenty-seven plates suffice to illustrate the whole of French painting, while thirteen are made to cover the whole of French sculpture from Claux Sluters to Rodin, no artist having more than one work reproduced. With the advent of "the new movement in sculpture" all is changed. There is one plate after Aubé, there are two after Dalou, and no less than five illustrate the work of Rodin himself. To put it arithmetically, the importance of the "new movement" to the importance of the whole of French sculpture outside it is as 8 to 13, while the importance of Rodin is to the importance of all other French sculptors together as is 5 to 16. The number of pages of text devoted to the "new movement" and to the older sculpture gives a still more startling ratio. By this test the importance of the "new movement" is to the importance of all earlier works as is 52 to 49, and the importance of the work of Rodin to the importance of all other French sculpture together is as 44 to 57! At this rate one begins to feel that the book might be properly entitled "French Art—Especially Rodin."

On the other hand, Mr. Brownell has nothing whatever to add to his account of French painting, saying: "Except in sculpture, and in the sculpture of Rodin and that more or less directly influenced by him, there has been no new phase of French art developed within the decade—at least none important enough to impose other additions to the text of a work so general in character." The last chapter of the section of this book which deals with painting is devoted to "Realistic Painting," and one of the last artists dealt with is Claude Monet. Now it is perhaps true that no new and important phase of French painting has been developed since Monet, or no new phase of which the importance can, as yet, be measured; but it seems to us that French painting, of recent years, has shown a decided reaction against Monet, and a reaction the direction of which can be partially ascertained; and that the direction of that reaction does not bear out the prophecies for the future with which Mr. Brownell closed his account of French painting nine years ago.

We gave, in our review of the first edition of "French Art," our reasons for thinking that Mr. Brownell had not entirely

comprehended the true nature of the revolution wrought in the methods of painting by Claude Monet, and that he overrated the novelty of some aspects of Monet's practice. We are still of that opinion, but—a more important matter—we think that these last years have clearly proved that he overrated, also, the intrinsic importance and the permanence of the impressionistic revolution. Monet is, as Mr. Brownell clearly recognizes, the latest in a series of naturalists—a series that begins, if you like, with Courbet, and includes Manet and Bastien; and Monet's contribution to art is really a contribution to science—to the science of visible aspects. This, we say, Mr. Brownell clearly recognizes, and he therefore sees that "whatever the painting of the future is to be, it is certain not to be the painting of Monet," because art cannot permanently rest in the scientific alone, but must "again become creative, constructive, personally expressive." Yet he thinks that Monet's method must to some extent be followed.

"No one hereafter," he says, "who attempts the representation of Nature—and, so far ahead as we can see with any confidence, the representation of Nature . . . will increasingly intrench itself as the painter's true aim—no one who seriously attempts to realize this aim of now universal appeal will be able to dispense with Monet's aid. He must perforce follow the lines laid down for him by this astonishing naturalist. Any other course must result in solecism; and if anything future is certain, it is certain that the future will be not only inhospitable to, but absolutely intolerant of, solecism."

He even hints that "the future is pregnant with some genius that will out-Monet Monet, and that painting will have to submit hereafter to a still more rigorous standard than it does at present"—suggesting "the claims of binocular vision."

What light has the experience of ten years past thrown upon the truth of these prophecies? It is notorious that the visible influence of Monet has almost entirely disappeared from the walls of French exhibitions, and even from our own; that today Whistler is infinitely more influential than Monet; that blackness rather than light is the fancy of the hour, and that "tone" is elevated to the position of the one thing needful. Whistler's principles and practice have ever been purely æsthetic, ever anti-scientific; and Whistler is the hero of the day. We do not believe that the Whistlerian gospel, any more than the gospel according to Monet, will prove permanent—both are phases of the restlessness and the experimental temper of modern art; but the suddenness and the completeness of the reversal are certainly significant. What we believe them to signify is, that the long reign of naturalism is at last at an end; that photography and Bastien-Lepage have at last taught us that the representation of Nature is not the painter's true aim; that "solecism" will not be the bugbear of the painter of the future. When the dust of the battle of the "movements" has cleared away, we believe it will be found that the great painters of the latter part of the nineteenth century are not the Manets and the Monets and other semi-scientific experimenters, but Corot and Millet, Rossetti and Watts and Böcklin, and our own La Farge—men who have been content, out-

side of all schools and movements, to create something beautiful, or to express something significant, using just so much science and so much Nature as they found fitted to their ends, and no more.

Mr. Brownell takes great pains to explain style and to be just to the classic spirit, but we think it is evident that he takes so much pains precisely because he is naturally unsympathetic to stylistic and classical art. He is distinctly cool toward Ingres, and admits Baudry to serious rank only on account of the opinions of others. He tries to be fair to Paul Dubois, but it goes against the grain. As painting and sculpture become, first more romantic, and then more naturalistic, he becomes more at ease with them and more enthusiastic, and when he reaches Monet, he thinks a basis for all future painting has been established. Rodin is an absolute realist in theory, and in practice a prodigious modeller of the *morceau*; a master of anatomy, with occasional starts of Romanticism à outrance, which lead to formless attempts at pure expression, like his "Balzac." Therefore, to Mr. Brownell, his work is worth all the rest of French sculpture together.

No one has written better of French art than Mr. Brownell, or has seen more clearly the fundamental importance in that art of the sense of form and measure; the desire of style; the classic spirit. Yet this admirable analysis of the nature of French art seems to have been written by a critic whose personal sympathy is with everything in that art which is least French.

The Wessex of Thomas Hardy. Written by Bertram C. A. Windle, F.R.S., F.S.A. Illustrated by Edmund H. New. John Lane. [1901.]

Travels Round Our Village. By E. G. Hayden. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. [1901.]

The topography of Mr. Hardy's novels has long been a favorite theme of magazine articles. His works are especially likely to allure the curious to such an inquiry because his fictitious names of places have just enough basis in fact to make their identification a pleasing exercise, while the research involves a number of agreeable excursions in a region of England little known to the tourist, and possessing certain peculiar and striking features. Mr. Hardy has recognized and made concessions to his readers' curiosity in his Wessex maps, such as were printed at the end of the "Well-Beloved"; and in his preface to the last edition of "Tess" he tells us that—

"the description of these backgrounds . . . has been drawn from the real. . . . In planning the stories, the idea was that large towns and points tending to mark the outline of Wessex, such as Bath, Plymouth, the Start, Portland Bill, Southampton, should be named outright. The scheme was not greatly elaborated, but, whatever its value, the names remain still. In respect of places described under fictitious or ancient names—for reasons that seemed good at the time of writing—discerning persons have affirmed in print that they clearly recognize the originals; I shall not be the one to contradict them; I accept their statements as at least an indication of their real and kindly interest in the scenes."

Some men impose phrases on the world; Mr. Hardy has imposed a geography of his

own. The whole of southern England has fallen under his spell. He has, as it were, recreated the old kingdom of Wessex; before his novels the name was confined to the vocabulary of antiquarians; to-day we are all familiar with such phrases as "a Wessex custom," "a Wessex peasant," so that "the dream-country has, by degrees, solidified into a utilitarian region which people can go to, take a house in, and write to the papers from."

There will always be some difference of opinion as to Mr. Hardy's power to represent faithfully the English yokel as he lives and, above all, talks; his touch of the fantastic, here, now and again, leads Mr. Hardy astray. But no writer of fiction has ever surpassed him in ability to call up vividly before his readers certain haunting types of scenery, such as "the swarthy and abrupt slopes of Egdon Heath," which he loves even better than the fertile valleys around it.

"To recline on a stump of thorn in the central valley of Egdon, between afternoon and night, where the eye could reach nothing of the world outside the summits and shoulders of heath land which filled the whole circumference of its glance, and to know that everything around and underneath had been from prehistoric times as unaltered as the stars overhead, gave ballast to the mind adrift on change and harassed by the irrepressible new. . . . Who can say of a particular sea that it is old? Distilled by the sun, kneaded by the moon, it is renewed in a year, in a day, or in an hour. The sea changed, the fields changed, the rivers, the villages, and the people changed, yet Egdon remained."

Though he gives us now and again smug smiling valleys with lush grass, countless cattle, and rosy dairy-maids, Mr. Hardy is more at home in the stony Isle of Slingers, or in those strange earthworks that abound in Dorset, which he makes the background for the gloomy side of Wessex life.

Mr. Windle's tours in Wessex took as their basis Casterbridge, known on the ordinary map as Dorchester. Starting thence in all directions, he tracks the roads, villages, inns, and manor-houses that Mr. Hardy had in mind—the names he finds are often hardly changed at all. Mr. New's beautiful drawings reproduce the charm, often of a sombre kind, that haunts these wide downs with their Saxon barrows. He is one of the younger generation of illustrators whose work is known as that of the "Birmingham school," deeply influenced by William Morris. His work is accordingly more decorative and conventional and consequently more severe than that of such illustrators as Pennell or Railton, and to the untrained eye seems over severe. But no one could have been better chosen to reproduce the scenery of Wessex, and the architecture of the old Jacobean mansions and older churches that adorn that region. Mr. Windle is a Fellow of the Society of Antiquarians as well as of the Royal Society, and it is seldom that a novelist finds so distinguished a devotee to expound his geography and antiquities. The book is one that will delight all antiquarians, and especially those who love rural England and the novels of Thomas Hardy.

The scene of Miss Hayden's studies in village life is laid in Wessex. The name of the village is not given, but the description of its surroundings and inhabitants would fit almost any Wiltshire or Dorsetshire hamlet. Miss Hayden's sketches are

devoted to certain village types, and the tales of their struggling lives are pathetic and interesting. Her book reminds one continually of those articles on country life that are so dear to readers of the *Spectator*, and some of them are reprinted from that review. The attitude of the Wessex peasant to the Boer war which he so little understands, his helplessness and pathetic, because misplaced, reliance on "the Government," his weary and rheumatic old age maintained on two shillings a week and two loaves of bread, the hopeless atrophy of agriculture—all these features of that English peasant life which varies so little from Land's End to John o' Groat's, are faithfully reproduced by Miss Hayden, who writes with some humor and a pleasant style. Her recipes for Old-English dishes and wines will not appeal to the American palate, and the book as a whole is likely to have more circulation in England than here. The illustrations are decidedly poor, though here and there we have noted an exception.

The Print-Collector's Handbook. By Alfred Whitman. London: G. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Printer and publisher have done their best to give this book an attractive setting; heavy paper, large, clear type, ample margins, full-page illustrations, attest the appeal made to the eye of the connoisseur in book-making. It was, however, with some curiosity, after the first brief glance over its pages, that we turned to the preface for a hint as to just the class of readers the book was intended to reach. The first lines state that it is meant for beginners in print-collecting, but also that it hopes to satisfy "those who have devoted some time and attention to the pursuit of their hobby." It is divided into ten chapters, seven of which deal with processes, masters, and famous examples of engraving, one with the money value of prints—in its place an instructive and readable catalogue—one with the resources of the British Museum, and one with methods of housing a collection of prints. These titles stamp the work as eminently practical in its design; it is not a history of engraving, nor to any considerable extent a criticism of the relative merits of schools, masters, or methods. The author conceals in great measure his personal preferences.

The advice which is given in the first chapter, "Hints to Beginners," is excellent, and is developed in logical sequence; but it would seem as if the bulk of the information must have been already acquired by any one determined to be a print-collector, in the inevitable visits to print-shops before the determination had been reached; whereas the one great difficulty which confronts the collector of considerable experience even, the selection of the best impression, or the original impression as against the restrike, is so inadequately treated as to leave the beginner with his perplexity scarcely diminished. Surely this treatment could have been improved, and made an actual help to the collector by specific illustration. Then, amid the warnings against traps for the unwary scattered through this first chapter, and given a special place at the end of the chapter on color-prints, we fail to find anything about the one which claims possibly the greatest num-

ber of victims, the commercial device known as the "signed proof." It began with etchings, but has now been extended to lithographs, wood-engravings, color-prints, dry-points, mezzotints, photogravures, and even half-tone engravings; and the only reason why it is not found on-line and stipple engravings is, that when these processes were most in vogue, the device had not been invented even for etching. This device of the signature was supposed to furnish the buyer with a visible guarantee that his proof was one of the earliest pulled from the plate, or at least one which the artist considered a thoroughly satisfactory impression of his work in its best state. Yet few collectors have made much progress in acquiring prints that date no further back than 1860, without becoming aware that in many cases unsigned impressions are earlier and better than the signed and "remarqued" impressions in the hands of dealers. The writer remembers still the look on the face of an American etcher, whose plate had been sold to a dealer, when the eight-hundredth proof was sent in for signature, which was duly affixed with an exclamation that need not be repeated here, since it would open up a phase of the subject not now under discussion.

The plain conclusion of all such warnings is, that until the amateur has acquainted himself with the history of the individual plate, and gained a precision of judgment that enables him to determine the quality of an impression on its own merits, independent of such factitious aids as signatures, remarques, lettering, and the like, he is more or less in bondage to those devices which often ensnare the expert. The owner of that eight-hundredth proof may not have been so much worse off than his neighbor with the six-hundredth, but what value did the purchasers of sundry impressions from an actually ruined plate receive, all of which were duly signed and exposed in print-shops a few years ago? Our author's protest against so-called "states," which are really "progress proofs," has been made before, and will bear repeating again and again. In connection with it a warning might have been added against that not infrequent alteration of states which consists in rubbing out the indication of one, and substituting another that may be considered more desirable. Here again knowledge of the plate is the single safeguard against deception. This can be obtained in most cases only from long and careful study in museums, or from accurate catalogues raisonnés. Such suggestion is, indeed, made in the pages of the first chapter, but what valid excuse can be brought for the omission of anything like a bibliography from a handbook for beginners? Is it really a hand-book without this indispensable sign-post?

The second chapter, on "Etching," contains references to Hamerton, Binyon, and Wedmore, with mention of two catalogues of Rembrandt's etchings. The third chapter, on "Line Engraving," refers to Cust's 'Dürer Prints,' while Bartsch's name appears occasionally, and Mrs. Frankau's monograph on eighteenth-century color-prints winds up the list of designated authorities—a brevity hardly stimulating to the beginner. Nor do these chapters lead him far into a knowledge of the technical processes of the various kinds of engraving. The "pin and candle" illus-

tration does not explain very thoroughly the action of a tool upon metal, a matter of prime importance, though the enlarged illustrations (which are, by the way, the most valuable in the book) do something towards remedying this defect.

Both the beginner and the amateur of experience will find a certain consolation for the deficiencies that have been noted, in the admirable descriptions of those particular qualities in the prints selected for illustration which rightfully arouse the enthusiasm of the lover of the art. These terse characterizations, woven into the threads of an equally succinct narrative of the historical development of engraving, form, together with the chapter on the money value of prints, the real stuff of the book, and may well inspire the beginner to pursue the paths marked out for him, with just expectation of increasing pleasure.

Of the illustrations we cannot speak with like commendation. The selection may be passed over, as the reason for giving the largest number to mezzotint is sufficiently clear. The enlargements have already been noticed with approval; the collotype renders fairly well the general effect of stipple and mezzotint engraving, without reaching in any way the *quality* of the original; it is even better for lithographs. But what is to be said of the ordinary half-tone, in which method nearly seven-eighths of the illustrations are reproduced? The author, it is true, makes an apology for them on page 15, but the implied contention that the use of such reproductions will help to answer any of the questions put by the would-be collector, is utterly futile—barring, of course, the elementary one of composition. This, in more than half the examples given, belongs not to the engraver but to the painter whose work the former interprets. The purpose of merely suggesting the composition would have been attained more directly, if the half-tones had to be used, by inserting them in the text on a smaller scale, to the greater convenience in handling, since the brief text is now overwhelmed and hidden by the mass of unserviceable illustration.

In 1880 Georges Duplessis published his popular history of engraving in a small quarto volume of 578 pages, adorned with just about the same number of illustrations (73) as that contained in Mr. Whitman's handbook; the price was also about the same. Most of these illustrations were done by the well-known Amand-Durand process. It is hardly too much to say that almost any one of these would be of greater service to the beginner than the whole batch of half-tones in the Handbook. Mr. Whitman would be, we fancy, the last person to deny this, and we can only regret that his publishers failed by overmuch material decoration to make his work what it professes to be—a handbook. Doubtless the English collector is a very different being from the French and German student, and must be trained by different methods, but we cannot help feeling that the modest work of Lippmann, with its 110 illustrations, sold at the Berlin Museum for seventy-two cents, has fostered an interest in engraving quite as far-reaching as that which will attend the use of the present work; if for no other reason than the practical one that it slips easily into the pocket.

Wild Life Near Home. By Dallas Lore Sharp. With illustrations by Bruce Horsfall. The Century Co. 1901.

This book, made up of original field observations interpreted by a broad knowledge of biology, and graced by sentiment that does not outrage science, deserves to be singled out from the work of mere compilers and of enthusiasts who, intoxicated with country air, write what they feel instead of what they see. Mr. Sharp's sketches treat principally of the habits of birds and mammals, but also include those of certain reptiles, amphibians, and fish, thus embracing some types of all the groups of vertebrate animals. The text is illustrated by cuts that have happily caught the characteristic attitudes and diagnostic markings of their subjects. Altogether, the book gives somewhat the same kind of sound and entertaining instruction about these animals that the work of the late Hamilton Gibson gives about plants and insects; though it is less valuable from the purely artistic standpoint, and, owing to occasional carelessness of style, perhaps also from the literary. It is unusually free from errors. The so-called "freezing" of crows' eyes, however, is really the effect of a germ disease, and the discovery of a nesting winter wren in Southern New Jersey seems unaccountable.

About a third of the space is devoted to birds. Mr. Sharp does not isolate them from their natural setting, but tells where to find them, and treats of their relations to other animals and to their surroundings. He believes that the encroachments of civilization on rural neighborhoods and wilder regions do not necessarily banish birds, but that most birds have adopted man and seek his vicinity, forsaking deep woods to build along cart paths, in orchards, and sometimes even in street railway poles. He has a pleasant chapter on bird morals vs. the Ninth Commandment, describing various deceptive actions by which parents try to protect their nest.

"In the pines at this season one never gets nearer a jay than field-glass range—near enough to hear him dash away, screeching defiance. But here were these two gliding among the branches above my head as cautiously and softly as cuckoos, searching apparently for grubs, yet keeping all the time to the one spot. . . . At this juncture, I chanced to move my feet. The birds stopped instantly; but on my becoming quiet, they went on scattering the needles and bark chips again. Then I raised my glass. They paused for a second, and continued, though now I saw that their picking was all at random, hitting the limb or not as might be. They were not hunting grubs; they were watching me; and more—they were keeping me watching them.

"It was a clever little ruse. But it was too good, too new, too unjailike for my faith. There was a nest against one of these pines. . . ."

The chapter on the buzzard is a contribution to exact knowledge of this bird's habits. It contains a study of buzzards seen at their worst and at their best: scuffling clumsily together over the fragments of an unclean feast, and wheeling through the upper air in majestic flight.

Mr. Sharp's sympathy with animals, and his sensitiveness to the aspects of inanimate nature, which is evident though not obtrusive, are intertwined. A stormy winter twilight in the fields is made more dreary by the procession of crows beating wearily over to spend the bitter night in their pine roost,

or by a solitary quail signalling to reassemble what may be left of the covey after a day's shooting. The strangeness that touches even familiar things under the moonlight and shadow of an October night is deepened by rustling and footsteps of wild creatures astir, and March is transformed by the voice of the earliest frog.

"For me there is no clearer call in all the year than that of the hylas in the break-up days of March. The sap begins to start in my roots at the first peep. There is something in their brave little summons, as there is in the silvery light on the pussy willows, that takes hold on my hope and courage, and makes the March mud good to tramp through."

The book makes a good plea for interest in animals less attractive than birds. One sketch describes the lizard *Sceloporus* as it appears in the pine barrens of Southern New Jersey, an alert and not unfriendly little beast, pleasing in spite of its scales and reptile head. This is the best chapter on the lower vertebrates, as the sketches of the rabbit and the muskrat are on the higher. Mr. Sharp may not look into the souls of animals as Mr. Seton-Thompson does, but he writes in a straightforward, convincing fashion. He shows the rabbits threading their labyrinth of roads, couched in their lonely "forms," and playing at night in a clover field; and tells how he saw one mother defending her young from a cat by flashing blows dealt from her powerful hind feet as she bounded back and forth over his body. A little scene odd enough to be remembered shows several muskrats at supper one bright November night, on the edge of a pond containing a village of six domes. After a course of fresh-water mussels from the bottom of a deep pool, they brought from the meadow great mouthfuls of the mud-bleached ends of calamus stalks, and, climbing upon a bit of plank against the shore, proceeded to wash them for a salad. It was a pretty sight, the author says, to see the little fellows humped on the edge of their plank, sousing the calamus blade by blade in the moonlit water, and scrubbing it clean with their paws.

Thoreau says, in reference to learning the art of seeing, that if you wish to find arrow-heads you must "think arrow-heads" before you can distinguish them among the stones of the ploughed field. Mr. Sharp's descriptions ought to give an attentive reader images so clear that he will be able to "think" these common wild neighbors and recognize many of them when he meets them in the field.

The Stars: A Study of the Universe. By Simon Newcomb. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams. 1901.

Professor Cattell, editor of "The Science Series," in which *The Stars* forms No. 9, could have made no choice of a writer on this most comprehensive of subjects better fitted than Professor Newcomb, whose life has mainly been spent in the study of these bodies. His book is well worth reading. Yet, past master that he is, he has found the task far from easy, so complex and extensive is the general field of inquiry, and so wide-scattered through endless volumes of periodicals in a half-dozen languages are the original investigations that must be critically searched.

While Professor Newcomb may be quite candid in saying that he has failed to sur-

mount these difficulties satisfactorily to himself, his shortcomings are far from obvious and abundant. One great charm of his book, especially to the investigator, is that he so often supplements the theories and researches of others by most valuable criticism, estimates, and suggestions of his own. Of the distribution of the stars in space, perhaps the most intricate problem of all, he says (p. 318):

"One reflection may occur to the thinking reader, as he sees these reasons for deeming our position in the universe to be a central one. Ptolemy showed by evidence which, from his standpoint, looked as sound as that which we have cited, that the earth was fixed in the centre of the universe. May we not be the victims of some fallacy, as he was?"

Professor Newcomb gives much attention to the labors of Sir John Herschel at the Cape of Good Hope, and not less to the later Americans, Gillis and Gould. To the last he assigns highest rank as the "father of modern American astronomy." His 'Uranometria Argentina,' now nearly a quarter century old, is a masterpiece of science. The unflagging energies of Sir David Gill, his Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, have raised the Royal Observatory there to the first rank; and modern stellar astronomy, in especial that of the southern celestial hemisphere, has been most significantly advanced by his labors. Within recent years, while his unequalled researches into the distances of the stars and their positions on the celestial vault have been vigorously prosecuted, he has undertaken, also, with the able coöperation of Mr. Frank McClean, a spectroscopic census of all the bodies that are beyond the effective reach of the more abundant northern instruments. The work, too, has been carried on in such fashion as to supplement in an important degree the equally valuable and highly accurate work of the most active American observatories—Harvard, under Pickering's, and the Lick, now under Campbell's capable direction.

Careful readers of 'The Stars' will not omit to thank Professor Campbell for his generous contribution to the embellishment of this important volume in the late Professor Keeler's marvellous photograph of the trifold nebula in Sagittarius, taken with Mr. Crossley's three-foot reflector. No better frontispiece was possible. The few half-tones scattered through the volume are invariably excellent, and we wish it were possible to say the same of the line engravings. But nearly all of them are, in the lettering particularly, so blurred as to constitute a decided blemish in a book otherwise perfect in mechanical execution. The typography and paper are worthy of adoption as models—the latter especially for its absence of that eye-tiring gloss usually thought requisite for perfect half-tone impressions. That Professor Newcomb has kept the lay contingent well in mind is evident from the very readable paragraphs here and there interspersed among those more substantial ones that will appeal chiefly to the expert in things stellar. Characterizing that almost sensational innovation initiated by Sir William Huggins more than a third of a century ago, whereby the spectroscope enables us to measure the motions of stars toward the earth or from it, Professor Newcomb says (p. 11):

"No achievement of the intellect of man would have seemed farther without the range of possibility to the thinker of half a century ago than the discoveries of in-

visible bodies which are now being made by such measurements. The revelations of the telescope take us by surprise. But if we consider what the thinker alluded to might regard as attainable, they are far surpassed by those of the spectroscope. The dark bodies, planets we may call them, which are revolving round the stars, must be for ever invisible in any telescope that it would be possible to construct. They would remain invisible if the power of the instrument were increased ten thousand times. And yet if there are inhabitants on these planets, our astronomers could tell them more of the motions of the world on which they live than the human race knew of the motions of the earth before the time of Copernicus."

Among the best chapters in the book is that on the motion of the sun, in which the author concludes that the "apex of the sun's way," as it is often technically styled, or the stellar direction in which our sun and his family of planets are moving, is that of the constellation Lyra, and practically towards its brightest star, which everybody knows as Vega. And nearly twenty kilometres (or about twelve miles) in every second of time is the likeliest modern value of our speeding Vega-ward through space.

Other lucid chapters treat entertainingly of variable stars; also of new stars and their causes, not neglecting Nova Persei, the latest addition to the list. Professor Newcomb accepts the hypothesis that these latter are due to "some cataclysm of a rather extraordinary kind." More statistical are the chapters following, on the parallaxes of the stars, and on stellar systems, including that epoch-making discovery known as the spectroscopic binary, of which about fifty systems are at present known. Though the companion stars can never be seen by any telescope, yet their existence is a certainty. Another excellent chapter, though brief, is that on nebulae; finely illustrated also from the recent photographs of Common, Keeler, and Roberts.

Appropriately following are chapters on the constitution of the stars, critically discussed in the light of the laws of modern physics, and on stellar evolution, or the life history of stars, concerning which Professor Newcomb says (p. 223): "The general fact that every star has a life history—that this history will ultimately come to an end—that it must have had a beginning in time—is indicated by so great a number of concurring facts that no one who has most profoundly studied the subject can have serious doubts upon it." The author follows the mature views of Sir William Huggins, based upon critical study of spectra. We may quote also these significant sentences from the chapter on stellar evolution (p. 225):

"Facts are accumulating which converge to the view that forms of substance exist which are neither matter nor ether, but something between the two—perhaps primordial substance from which matter itself was evolved. In this ethereal substance is stored an almost exhaustless supply of energy, the withdrawal of which results in the condensation of the substance into matter."

We have left little space for the closing chapters, rather speculative and technical, on the structure of the heavens, the Milky Way, and the apparent clustering and distribution of the stars. Answers in scientific form are not yet forthcoming to most of these great questions; but we may hope for more light when the completed charts of the International Astrographic Survey

of the heavens shall have been carefully studied. Professor Newcomb makes a judicial presentation of the consensus of modern opinion, though little more than the first step toward a definitive solution can yet be said to have been taken. The Kepler of the starry hosts is doubtless yet unborn.

We note but few typographical lapses: *triphid* (pp. xi. and 182) should be as in the frontispiece (*trifid*); Sir David Gill (p. 47); p. 167, the first discovered spectroscopic binary is Mizar, or *Zeta Ursæ Majoris*, not *Xi*; p. 194, the algebraic formula lacks an obvious addition, while the last line on p. 257 also requires a small correction not so obvious. This admirable book would be bettered by a brief chapter summarizing the cosmogony; it is worthy, too, of a fuller index; and the addition of systematic bibliographies would have enhanced its value greatly, to the student and the investigator especially.

Anna Karenin. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian by Constance Garnett. In two volumes. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

There was room for a good translation of 'Anna Karenin,' which has not yet been sufficiently appreciated in this country because previous translations were both awkward and careless. How far Mrs. Garnett's is an improvement upon the old may be gathered from a couple of examples. First, the Englishwoman (p. 177):

"Well, master, when summer's here, mind you don't scold me for these rows," said Vassily.

"Eh?" said Levin cheerily, already feeling the effect of his method.

"Why, you'll see in the summer time. It'll look different. Look you where I sowed last spring. How I did work at it! I do my best, Konstantin Dmitritch, d'ye see? as I would for my own father. I don't like bad work myself, nor would I let another man do it. What's good for the master's good for us too."

Mr. N. H. Dole has thus translated the same passage (p. 159):

"Nul Barin (Lord), I don't like to do slack work," said Vassili in his *muzhik* dialect. "What is good for the master is good for us."

Either through want of familiarity with the "muzhik dialect," which, by the way, Tolstoy does not mention here, or for some other reason known to the translator alone, Mr. Dole abridged Tolstoy in this passage. But here is another in which he also perverted Tolstoy's ideas (p. 168):

"Why wasn't the field harrowed?" demanded Levin.

"Oh, it'll come out all right," replied Vassili, taking up a handful of seed and rubbing it between his fingers.

"It was not Vassili's fault that the field had not been harrowed or the seed sifted; but Levin was not less provoked."

The new version has the following instead (p. 177):

"Why is it you have earth that's not sifted?" said Levin.

"Well, we crumble it up," answered Vassily, taking up some seed and rolling the earth in his palms.

"Vassily was not to blame for their having filled up his cart with unsifted earth, but still it was annoying."

Because Mr. Dole's translation is faulty, however, it does not follow that Mrs. Garnett's is impeccable. It is certainly closer to the original than any that has come to

our notice, yet it can hardly be called a "literal" translation, though the English, in many places, is clumsy enough for that. The magical simplicity of Tolstoy's style in 'Anna Karenin' evaporates, and the smooth polish is lost, in her English. A number of blunders, too, have crept into the work, in spite of the great care with which Mrs. Garnett apparently approached her task. We will give a few instances taken at random: "Zaiskivaya," which means "courting favors," is translated "hesitating" (page 177). "Tatars" is, in Mrs. Garnett's English, "waiters." It is quite true that many of the waiters in Russian restaurants are Tatars, but a Tatarin is not necessarily a waiter. Where Tolstoy speaks of "life" Mrs. Garnett prefers to have him speak of "daily life," and where Tolstoy says the coachman was washing the carriage near the well, Mrs. Garnett has the coachman "washing the carriage wheels" (p. 174). The Russian text of what follows is perfectly simple and clear, but it sounds ridiculous in the new translation: "You're very much of a piece . . . You have a character that's all of a piece, and you want the whole of life to be of a piece, too . . ." (p. 47). The Russian reads thus: "You are a very pure man . . . Yours is a pure character, and you want factors of purity to constitute the whole of life. . . ."

With all its shortcomings, this is a conscientious translation of Tolstoy's masterpiece, and if all the works of the great Russian were to be rendered as scrupulously as this, it would be a great boon to English readers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aidé, Hamilton. *The Snares of the World*. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
 A Modern Anteus. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.50.
 Andrews, Charlton. *A Parrot Gentil Knight*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.50.
 Archer, William. *Poets of the Younger Generation*. John Lane. \$6.
 Arnold, Matthew. *Sweetness and Light*. H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Babcock, M. D. *Thoughts for Every-day Living*. Scribners. \$1.
 Baldwin, James. *The Conquest of the Old Northwest*. American Book Co. 60 cents.
 Bateman, G. W. *Zanzibar Tales*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 Beers, H. A. *A History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century*. H. Holt & Co. \$1.75.
 "B. H. L." Chevreton. *A Story of West Point*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.25.
 Bennet, R. A. *Thyra*. H. Holt & Co. \$1.50.
 Bingham, Clifton. *The Animals' Picnic*. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
 Birrell, Augustine. *Essays and Addresses*. Scribners. \$1.
 Blashfield, Evangeline W. *Masques of Cupid*. Scribners. \$3.50.
 Bissett, Nellie K. *The Most Famous Loba*. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.
 Bloch, I., and Lévy, E. *Histoire de la Littérature Juive, d'après G. Karpelès*. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
 Boas, F. S. *The Works of Thomas Kyd*. Henry Frowde. \$5.
 Bolton, C. E. *A Model Village, and Other Papers*. Boston: L. O. Page & Co. \$1.25.
 Book-Prices Current. Vol. XV. London: Elliot Stock. One guinea.
 Bridge, E. A. W. *The Contendings of the Apostles*. Vol. II. Henry Frowde.
 Bridgeman, L. J. *Guess*. H. M. Caldwell Co.
 Briggs, Le B. R. *School, College, and Character*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
 Brownell, W. C. *French Art*. Scribners. \$3.75.
 Brownell, W. C. *Victorian Prose Masters*. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Browning, Elizabeth Barrett. *Casa Guidi Windows*. John Lane. 75 cents.
 "Bubble" Jingles. Rohde & Haskins.
 Bullen, F. T. *The Apostles of the Southeast*. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
 Buss, Septimus. *Roman Law and History in the New Testament*. London: Rivingtons. 6s.
 Butterworth, Ezekiah. *In the Days of Audubon*. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
 Chambers, Julius. *The Destiny of Doris*. Continental Pub. Co. \$1.50.
 Champin, J. D. *The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Literature and Art*. H. Holt & Co. \$2.50.
 Chefs d'Œuvre of the Exposition Universelle. Parts 16 and 17. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.
 Clark, C. H. *Captain Blunt*. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. \$1.50.
 Cobb, J. S. A. *Quarter Century of Cremation in America*. Boston: Knight & Millet.

Cobb, Thomas. *Severance*. John Lane. \$1.50.
 Conklin, Viola A. *American Political History*. H. Holt & Co. \$1.50.
 Copeland, Walter. *The Barn Books*. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
 Corvo, F. B. *Chronicles of the House of Borgia*. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$8.
 Crape, Walter. *Goody Two-Shoes*. John Lane.
 Creelman, James. *On the Great Highway*. Lothrop Pub. Co.
 Cummings, C. A. *A History of Architecture in Italy*. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$7.50.
 Dickens, Charles. *A Tale of Two Cities*. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Henry Frowde.
 Dickinson, Martha G. *The Cathedral, and Other Poems*. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Dole, N. H., and Walker, Belle M. *Flowers from Persian Poets*. 2 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$4.
 Dubbs, E. L. *Dubbs's New Practical Arithmetic*. American Book Co. 75 cents.
 Dutton's Holiday Annual for 1902. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
 Eldridge, G. S. *Unto Heights Heroic*. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents.
 Fairweather, William. *Origen and Greek Patristic Theology*. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Fénelon, Archbishop. *Golden Thoughts*. (Remarkable edition.) H. M. Caldwell Co. 75 cents.
 Fleming, Thomas. *Around the "Pan"*. The Nutshell Pub. Co.
 Football Calendar, 1902. R. H. Russell.
 Funck-Brentano, Franz. *The Diamond Necklace*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Gerberding, Elizabeth. *The Golden Chimney*. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. \$1.
 Goodsell, D. A. *Nature and Character at Granite Bay*. Eaton & Mains. \$1.50.
 Gorky, Maxim. *Orloff and his Wife*. Scribners. \$1.
 Hapgood, Norman. *George Washington*. Macmillan. \$1.75.
 Hart, A. B. *The Foundations of American Foreign Policy*. Macmillan. \$1.50.
 Hastings, Charles. *The Theatre: Its Development in France and England, and a History of its Greek and Latin Origins*. London: Duckworth & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
 Hawthorne, Nathaniel. *The Marble Faun*. (Riverside Literature Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
 Herford, Oliver. *More Animals*. Scribners. \$1.
 Hill, F. T. *The Care of Estates*. Baker, Voorhis & Co. \$1.25.
 Hough, E. M. *Dutch Life in Town and Country*. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Hosmer, J. K. *A Short History of the Mississippi Valley*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.20.
 Howard, Clifford. *The Story of a Young Man (A Life of Christ)*. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$2.50.
 Hughes, Rupert. *Gyges' Ring*. R. H. Russell.
 Huntington, Faye. *The Opportunity Circle*. American Tract Society. 60 cents.
 Huntington, H. W. *The Show Dog*. Providence: Published by the Author.
 Hurl, Estelle M. *Landseer*. (Riverside Art Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
 James, J. A., and Sanford, A. H. *Government in State and Nation*. Scribners. \$1.
 Jameson, Mrs. *Shakespeare's Heroines*. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
 Janvier, T. A. *In Great Waters*. Harpers. \$1.25.
 Jingles from Japan. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 75 cents.
 Joachim, H. H. *A Study of the Ethics of Spinoza*. Henry Frowde. \$3.40.
 Johnstone, P. De L. *Muhammad and his Power*. Scribners. \$1.25.
 Kernstaffe, Oleand. *Pebbles and Pearls*. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
 Knowles, A. C. *Come Unto Me*. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.
 Lamb, Charles and Mary. *Tales from Shakespeare*. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$2.50.
 Lanciani, R. *New Tales of Old Rome*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
 Laurel. *The Love Letters of an American Girl*. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.
 Lee, Agnes. *The Round Rabbit, and Other Child Verse*. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.20.
 Lever, Charles. *The Fortunes of Glencore*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Lever, Charles. *Tony Butler*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Livingston, W. F. *Israel Putnam*. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.35.
 Locke, W. J. *The Usurper*. John Lane. \$1.50.
 Long, W. J. *Fowls of the Air*. 2 vols. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$3.50.
 Lorimer, Norma. *By the Waters of Sicily*. James Pott & Co. \$1.75.
 Lorne, Marquis of. *Queen Victoria, her Life and Empire*. Harpers. \$2.50.
 Love Poems of Burns. (Lover's Library.) John Lane.
 Love Poems of Mrs. Browning. (Lover's Library.) John Lane.
 Lowrie, Walter. *Monuments of the Early Church*. Macmillan. \$1.75.
 Lyall, Edna. *In Spite of All*. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
 Mable, H. W. *A Child of Nature*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.80.
 Malan, A. H. *Other Famous Homes of Great Britain, and their Stories*. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Mason, A. E. W. *Clementina*. Frederick A. Stokes Co. \$1.50.
 Mather, Ed. *My Angling Friends*. Forest and Stream Pub. Co. \$2.
 Mayer, Henry. *The Adventures of a Japanese Doll*. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.
 McElhone, Nell K. *The Surprise Book*. Frederick A. Stokes Co. \$1.30.
 Merwin-Webster. *Calumet "K."* Macmillan. \$1.50.
 Miles, E. H. *How to Remember*. Frederick Warne & Co. \$1.
 Miller, J. R. *The Ministry of Comfort*. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.
 Mitchell, J. A. *The Pines of Lory*. Life Pub. Co.
 Monroe, D. B. *Homer's Odyssey*. Books XIII.-XXIV. Henry Frowde. \$4.

Monroe, Paul. *Source Book of the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period*. Macmillan.
 Montresor, F. F. *The Allen*. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
 Morris, J. E. *The Welsh Wars of Edward I*. Henry Frowde. \$3.15.
 Morris, W. O. *Present Irish Questions*. London: Grant Richards. \$4.
 Motley, J. L. *The Rise of the Dutch Republic*. 2 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$4.
 Mowbray, J. P. *The Making of a Country Home*. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.50.
 Muir, John. *Our National Parks*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.75.
 Munro, Neil. *The Shoes of Fortune*. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Munroe, Kirk. *A Son of Satsuma*. Scribners. \$1.
 Münsterberg, Hugo. *American Traits, from the Point of View of a German*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.60.
 Myers, Jane P. *Stories of Enchantment*. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
 National Newspaper Directory and Gazetteer. Pittingill & Co. \$5.
 Oertel, Hanns. *Lectures on the Study of Language*. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners. \$3.
 Ollivant, Alfred. *Bob, Son of Battle*. New Ill. ed. Doubleday & McClure Co. \$1.50.
 Paine, L. L. *The Ethnic Trinities*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.75.
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